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ABSTRACT

Industry, labor, and educational institutions are entering a new period of enthusiasm for mutual cooperation and alliances within communities. Local collaborative councils bringing together leaders from business, labor, government, and education are demonstrating anew the community-level leadership that is essential to create and establish a new national consensus about the purposes and functions of education institutions. But, according to this study, conducted through a review of literature and an examination of local collaborative councils, these are still pioneer activities without well established structures. Basic findings of the study are that (1) existing relationships between education institutions and the business sector are complex, while relationships with the labor sector are being built from a very limited base of prior contacts; (2) attention to the needs of collaboration with education is being given by business leaders especially as a focus on the elementary and secondary schools; (3) gradually, more interaction among education, business, and labor is leading to new patterns for education and training; and (4) career education and career development activities have been the focus taken by local collaborative councils. Recommendations are made for improvements in the collection and dissemination of information essential to the creation of effective programs of industry-education-labor collaboration nationwide; for improvements in the leadership of collaborative activities; and for federal and state government actions encouraging such collaboration. (KC)

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Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration

Policies and Practices In Perspective

By

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Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration Project
Center for Education and Work
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This volume is itself a working paper. In the past few years, the concepts and practices of collaboration and community-centered problem-solving have moved from the periphery of public policy to center stage. The search is on for a proper and effective relationship between local initiatives and the larger private and public policies supporting those initiatives. This volume describes some early aspects of these major shifts in attitudes, ideas, and actions.

Recognition of the role of education and training as crucial factors in the quality and economic viability of American life has been growing faster than these pages could be written. As one piece in this geometrically growing literature, this volume is intended to help connect the rhetoric of local industry-education-labor collaboration to its real opportunities.

The quality of the volume is, of course, solely the responsibility of the authors. Steven Jung is particularly responsible for Chapter V, David Bushnell for Chapter VI, and Gerard Gold for the remainder. But numerous thanks are owed to those who have answered our questions, provided us with their own research findings, explained to us their experiences, and helped us arrive at our own points of view.

Foremost among these are the many participants in local collaborative councils. Their thoughts and descriptions of local events have contributed mightily to all four project publications. These individuals and the many representatives of the business, labor, and education sectors from whom we also learned, are the ultimate audience for our efforts.

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Members of the Panel of Experts, named on the inside back cover, were particularly helpful in shaping the direction of this volume and in reviewing the project recommendations.

A special thanks is given to Pamela Tate and Jane Gold for their perceptive editorial comments on an earlier version of Chapter II published elsewhere.

INDUSTRY-EDUCATION-LABOR COLLABORATION PROJECT

Report Summary

Industry, labor, and education institutions are entering a new period of enthusiasm for mutual cooperation and alliances within communities. The major policy questions regarding this enthusiasm have far less to do with options for federal government leadership and far more to do with the leadership capacities of local and state institutions representing non-governmental sectors. Government can encourage, but others must "do" collaboration.

Will these leaders produce more effective learning and employment opportunities for young people and adults because of the collaborative projects they initiate? Or will these recent enthusiasms dissipate as a result of frustrations, unforeseen complexities, and a lack of true collaborative commitment in the face of the very real problems confronting American education and the American economy? Will there arise in fact a new, sustained coalition to create private and public sector support for the purposes, methods and financing of American education at the elementary, secondary, and postsecondary levels? Will a new coalition devise appropriate private and public policies to tackle the education and training needs of youth and working adults?

Local collaborative councils bringing together leaders from business, labor, government, and education deserve special attention because they are demonstrating anew the community-level leadership that is essential to create and establish a new national consensus about the purposes and functions of education institutions generally and public secondary schools most particularly. But, this study concludes, collaborative councils and industry-education-labor collaboration generally are still pioneer activities without well-established structures. Only as investments in human resources gain a stature equivalent to investments in technology will innovation in business-education-labor relations move from the periphery toward center stage of corporate, union, and education concerns.

Collaborative councils are but one among many linking mechanisms for industry-education-labor collaboration. The complexity of opportunities for relationships is described and analyzed in some detail in the first two chapters.

Chapters three through five address the specific characteristics, accomplishments, and limitations of locally initiated collaborative councils.

Chapter six discusses the structure of state government human resource agencies and the opportunities for linking state and local leadership and resources. The career development, youth transition, and human resource problems found in every community require mutually reinforcing action at both local and state levels.

Findings: The basic findings of this study are:

- Existing relationships between education institutions and the business sector in particular are multi-faceted with complex consequences for present efforts to improve those relationships. Existing relationships with the labor sector are also shaped by historical ambiguities, but are being built today from a very limited base of prior contacts. Private sector involvements on school boards and boards of trustees, as parents and alumni, as consultants and vendors, as taxpayers, and as "end users" of the "values added" by education institutions, help shape the attitudes and methods used by employers and unions in building formal, collaborative relationships to specific schools and colleges.

- Despite this complexity, the attention of top leadership in the private sector has been infrequently focused on education and training issues.

- As education and career development become more widely recognized as critical factors determining the capacity of American society for economic growth and socio-political stability, the attention of business and labor leaders is being drawn to the need for greater collaboration with education institutions. Likewise, educators are discovering greater need to build a constituency supportive of education institutions.

- This attention appears to be focusing on the elementary and secondary schools as providers of foundation skills and attitudes. Postsecondary colleges, universities, and technical institutes are being recognized progressively as partners with employers--private and public--in providing education and training on a lifelong basis.

- Growing dependence of the private sector on the performance of education and training functions--whether "in house" or through education institutions--is leading to greater need for communication, understanding, program development, and accountability among the sectors. There is growing awareness that these needs must be achieved on a person-to-person, institution-to-institution basis starting at the community level.

- Gradually--and still only superficially in most locations--more frequent, more substantive interaction among the three sectors is leading toward new patterns of responsibility for education and training. Working from the ground up, more community leaders are becoming involved in basic policy questions affecting the delivery of education and training:

  -- Who receives education and training?
  -- Who provides education and training?
  -- Where are education and training provided?
  -- Who pays for education and training?
  -- Who benefits from education and training?

- A variety of formal and informal mechanisms to improve communications, understanding, programs, and accountability already exist and are being created at all jurisdictional levels.

- Being locally initiated, collaborative councils exhibit diverse purposes, membership, resources, activities, and quality. Councils may have very modest or very ambitious goals and resources. Their accomplishments may be modest or impressive in proportion to their intentions. Communication and self-initiated comparisons between councils have been few. Networking has increased in recent years. The growth in the numbers of local councils--from about 16 in 1969 to over 155 in 1981--has been stimulated by a combination of increased private and public sector interest and the availability of public sector funding. Relatively few councils with staff are supported primarily by private sector funds.

- The programmatic directions of local councils have been to focus their energies on activities that are generally described by the terms career education and career development. Less frequently, collaborative councils have also sought to address tasks related to improvements in vocational education and overall quality of public school administration. These activities most frequently are intended to improve the preparation of secondary school youth for their transitions from school to work. Other council activities involve teacher in-service training, adult learner projects, and non-school training. The motivations, commitments, and directions of collaborative councils are relatively new and rapidly evolving community by community, state by state. Their energies and relative sophistication and accomplishments are almost totally dependent on the quality of local leadership.

Recommendations: The 14 recommendations included in Chapter VII are organized in four sections:

- Recommended improvements in the collection and dissemination of information essential to the creation of effective programs of industry-education-labor collaboration nationwide

- Recommended improvements in the leadership of collaborative activities nationwide

- Recommended federal government actions encouraging industry-education-labor collaboration in states and communities

- Recommended state government actions encouraging collaboration

Among the principal recommendations (justified in more detail in the full text) are the following:

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- As a supplement to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), a periodic National Assessment of Employability Skills should be developed to identify trends in the skill levels required for entry and first echelon promotion in major occupational sectors.

- The federal government should collect on a periodic basis quantitative and qualitative data as rough but valid indicators of the scope of industry-education-labor relationships.

- A Clearinghouse on Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration should be established as a "neutral" source of information and assistance on collaborative practices.

- Major national philanthropic foundations, corporate foundations, and community-based foundations should show leadership in the creation of "good idea funds" at community and state levels.

- Top management, professional associations and employee unions associated with four key industries--banking, insurance, public utilities, and major national retailers--should be encouraged in their efforts to develop private sector leadership strategies for industry-education-labor collaboration.

- The agenda for national-level discussions of collaboration among business, labor, and education leaders should aim for concerted action on three priority areas: 1) basic skills (including computer literacy), 2) pre-employment training, and 3) concentrated skill training for occupations with critical labor shortages. These priorities are of equal importance to youth and adult learners and workers.

- Liaison between federal government education and training agencies, private sector employers and unions, and national education organizations should be institutionalized in three ways: 1) make liaison a formal staff function at the Secretariat and/or agency-head level; 2) establish periodic meetings of the agency/department head with groups of industry, labor, and education leaders; 3) strengthen business/industry and labor representation on mandated career and vocational education advisory councils.

- Governors, in collaboration with state-level education, industry/business, and labor leaders, should develop their own programs to improve the environment for effective industry-education-labor collaboration. Such programs should be based upon improvements in information, leadership, and state agency actions.

- States should initiate action research to review and correct unnecessarily restrictive or outmoded state regulations and laws limiting the types and duration of out-of-school learning experiences for in-school youth.

- State governments should give serious attention to the advantages of direct financial support of local collaborative councils within their states.

CHAPTER I

ON NEUTRAL TURF: AN INTRODUCTION TO COLLABORATIVE COUNCILS

This report is organized in six main sections, each addressing a special set of issues in industry-education-labor collaboration. These sections are:

- An introductory analysis of the special significance of local collaborative councils as one among many mechanisms used to improve communications and action-oriented problem-solving among education institutions and key constituencies in their communities.
- A more far-reaching and detailed analysis of the overall structure and status of industry-education-labor collaborative relationships generally.
- An in-depth review of local collaborative councils nationwide as they were found during the project's research phase.
- A summary report by Steven Jung and other staff of the American Institutes for Research on the "evaluability" of local collaborative councils and the impact of their activities on events in their communities.
- An analysis by David Bushnell of American University of the present condition of and future opportunities for State leadership in aiding the development of local collaborative councils.
- Project recommendations regarding policy, planning, and practices to support improved industry-education-labor collaboration nationwide.

The Heart of the Matter

Throughout the past century, a policy of universal access to free elementary and secondary public education and subsidized higher education was supported nationwide by a broad consensus of parents, students, employers, unions, citizens at large, and political leaders. The basic task was that of building an educational enterprise capable of providing a growing population with skills commensurate with the nation's economic and political requirements. But once in place, this consensus was taken for granted, an understandable consequence of meeting so great a need over so long a period of time.

Too frequently underestimated as factors in the vitality of institutions, are the ways in which creative leaders build and rebuild constituencies and coalitions to support their organizations during periods of basic demographic, economic, and political changes. Industry-education-labor collaboration generally and local collaborative councils in particular would deserve special attention if only because they are demonstrating anew the community-level leadership that is essential to create and establish a new national consensus about the purposes and functions of secondary and postsecondary education institutions. But local councils deserve attention also because many of them are looking also at the purposes, functions, and capabilities of other community education, training, and employment institutions. These councils are beginning to help their communities sort out the various needs, resources, and responsibilities related to the broad education and preparation of young people and adults for work and citizenship. In so doing, they touch of necessity on the ways schools, employers, unions, universities, government, and community organizations of many types work together on many different education and training problems.

Today well over 150 independent collaborative councils are functioning in urban, suburban, and rural communities across the nation. A few operate as state-wide councils. Just five years ago few of these organizations would have existed. That they exist and thrive now is a tangible sign of a new wave of enthusiasm for business and labor cooperation and alliances with education institutions throughout the nation.

The emphasis is on institutional responsibility. Mindful that institutions are only as motivated as the individuals who represent them, council organizers also recognize that motivated institutional leaders carry far more clout and promise of sustained impact than if they act as individuals. In contrast, students and parents--historically not perceived as powerful community leaders--are accorded more attention as beneficiaries and clients than as leading actors.

Advocates of collaborative councils place their hopes in local "movers and shakers." But, who will hold these people accountable? Here the assumption seems to be that pluralism of interests and leader-constituent relationships within American communities are sufficiently vital to permit collaboration without collusion, without real danger to the integrity of education and work institutions. The validity of this assumption must be the central question being tested by the collaboration "movement" of the 1980s.

The Setting for This Report

Education, work, and adulthood. The vitality of any society is in large part a function of the ability to prepare successive generations for adult work. This is undoubtedly true if we include within the concept of "adult work" the responsibilities of parenthood and citizenship. It remains substantially true even when we restrict the concept to its more usual dictionary boundaries as "the means by which one earns one's livelihood; a trade, craft, business, or profession."

In recent years, ever more prevalent disconnections have been observed between the education and work experiences of youth and adults. These disconnections in the socialization of masses of individuals are now recognized as burdensome, costly, and even dangerous to our primary educational, economic, and political institutions. Recognition has led to action. From every side, new connections are being forged between education, training, work, and service institutions. As we try to sort out the needs, issues, resources, and solutions, "collaboration" has been used as one of those key terms which speak to solutions, to a better way of getting on with the work of a complex society.

Meaningful collaboration among industry, business, labor, education, community service organizations, and government agencies requires a means of linking the interests and energies of these institutions to issues important for all. The education, skill training, and socialization of young people for work and adult roles has provided such a set of issues in recent years. Local collaborative councils, one increasingly popular mechanism designed to link these diverse interests and issues, were the principal subject of the Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration Project of the National Institute for Work and Learning. The project has produced four publications*:

- An annotated review of the literature of collaborative councils and industry-education-labor collaboration
- A directory with profiles of over 150 local and state collaborative councils
- An Action Guide for Collaborative Councils
- This state-of-the-art report on industry-education-labor collaboration and collaborative councils

These publications are designed to respond to increasing nationwide interest in collaborative councils and to support the policy and planning needs of the U. S. Department of Education's Office of Vocational and Adult Education, the project's sponsor.

Collaborative Councils

Why collaborate? How collaborate? What *is* community collaboration? These are the principal questions addressed by a growing literature. Among community leaders from all sectors, improved communication, improved coordination of services, and improved uses of fiscal and personnel resources for social and economic development proposes have become deeply felt needs during the last few years. Where these sectors work together to solve a problem or set of problems, they collaborate. Collaboration can be bilateral, as when educators and local employment and training officials develop joint programs for in-school youth or when business and labor leaders work through the details of an apprenticeship or on-the-job training program. Or collaboration can be multilateral, as when educators and training agencies reach out to unions and employers for assistance in curriculum development, staff training and job placement strategies. Collaborative councils are designed as forums for a process which permits collaborative actions such as these to occur on a planned, sustained basis across sectors of communities.

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*All project publications are available for purchase from the National Institute for Work and Learning.

This literature emphasizes that it takes day-to-day experience, and year-to-year planning of activities and procedures for communities to develop, test, and rework effective collaborative mechanisms. Collaborative councils are one means through which community leaders are learning how to cope with the real problems and needs of youth, adults, and the institutions in which they learn and work. Words such as "turfdom" and "politics" were once accepted as negative, irreducible facts of life (and used as excuses for inaction). Through community councils, we are beginning to learn how to turn the self-interest inherent in those words to the advantage of all. "Collaboration" and "collaborative councils," as found in this literature, are young concepts still being developed. These terms also represent new sets of practices with both contributions and mistakes already made and still to be made. The message of the literature is that the contributions and new understanding will far outweigh the errors if the concepts of collaboration and collaborative councils are implemented in thoughtful ways by leaders sensitive to local needs and opportunities.

Collaborative councils usually are identified as either "Industry-Education-Labor Councils" (and "Industry-Education Councils") or "Work-Education Councils" (and "Education-Work Councils"). Local names for these generic types vary from community to community. Community Action Council for Career Education, Consortium of Vocational Educators and Employers, Tri-Lateral Council for Quality Education, and Association of Business, Labor and Education are but a few of the names that collaborative councils go by. Some of the Private Industry Councils (PICs) initiated through the federal government's Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) have also taken on the collaborative council's characteristic autonomy and involvement in education as well as work-related issues and have become part of the larger group.

Collaborative councils can be distinguished by a few criteria. These are general characteristics and fit better in some cases than in others:

- Council membership is representative of major sectors in a community; collaborative mechanisms are intended to join and serve the interest of more than two sectors. Councils should be designed to treat education, industry/business, labor, government, and youth service institutions as equal partners. In local practice, the interest and strength of one or two sectors may predominate, but the goal of collaborative councils is to seek a balance of multiple purposes rather than exclusivity.
- Collaborative councils are essentially self-organized. Initial sponsorship may come from one sector or even a single organization. But once organized, the council is responsible for its own continuity. Neither membership nor agenda is assigned to the collaborative partners by a single institution.
- Collaborative councils are performance-oriented. Members and staff develop their own agenda and approaches to community needs. While such councils may choose to play advisory roles in specific instances, they are designed to perform a variety of roles ranging from fact-finding, to project operation, to program development, to program brokering and catalyzing.

- Most crucially, council members and the institutions they represent share responsibility for implementing the action agenda which brought them together in the first place. Members exercise active leadership within their primary constituencies and with other sectors and constituencies. Collaboration implies a recognition of shared self-interests that leads to mutual action.

- Organizational activity is sustained through formal council organization, with assistance from a staff director or coordinator.

The issues on the agenda of collaborative councils run the gamut from policy to program to process. The agenda items may address the functions, attitudes, behaviors, and capabilities of schools, colleges, employers, labor unions, government agencies, and religious and social services institutions. Typically a council agenda deals with problems which can only be resolved through the involvement of two or more of these institutions.

For example, some collaborative councils have exhibited leadership in linking economic and human development. As employers and unions begin to examine the workplace of the future, they may be troubled by the perceived status of employee and member skills and motivation at all levels of the work force, whether management or workers. Trying to cope with workplace requirements, employers and unions are drawn progressively further into analysis of the causes of success and failure in career preparation. Collaborative councils are neutral "turfs" where these leaders and their education counterparts can discuss and act on needs, resources, and strategies in positive ways.

Linking diverse institutional self-interests is the principal strategy used by councils to engage institutions in joint planning and action on specific education-work issues. In this way, collaborative councils are intended to strengthen the capabilities of community and state-level institutions by using problem-solving approaches that build trust and achieve desired results.

Most councils operate on modest budgets. The principal cost factors are two: whether there is a paid staff and whether the council seeks project operation responsibilities requiring additional staff. Budgets of $40,000 to $100,000 are typical of councils with paid staff. Budgets of $2,000 to $3,000 are typical of councils which rely entirely on members for coordination, outreach and in-kind support. As councils become more active, and as their independent, broker role in the community becomes more significant, a core paid staff tends to be indispensable. Councils must then develop cash or equivalent donated staff services to support their efforts.

Overview of Policy Issues

Increasingly, national policy makers in government and the private sector have looked to community leaders to share responsibility for more effective problem identification, problem solving, and allocation of scarce resources. Should these responsibilities be mandated by federal law and regulation? Or must they be legitimized by grassroots initiative and ownership? What are the prospects for sustained cooperation among diverse local interest groups? Are there non-directive yet effective ways the federal government can assist new collaborative mechanisms to emerge? Or can we expect that local institutions with strongly felt needs will develop appropriate mechanisms on their own? Should collaborative mechanisms be used to initiate and operate direct services? Or should they aim to improve information and planning activities, leaving direct services to more traditional and established organizations? What are the funding needs of collaborative councils and similar mechanisms, and how should those needs be judged and provided?

Description, discussion, and some tentative answers to these questions may be found in an emerging literature and practice. But whether the current emphasis on local collaborative, interagency, intersector, interinstitutional solutions to complex problems will bear fruit in effective education, training, and employment practices is posed more as a hopeful question (with some supportive evidence) than as a confirmed answer in this literature. The techniques are still young and being developed.

Far clearer is the consensus that fragmented, institutionally unilateral approaches to youth education, training, socialization, and transition services have proven inadequate. The point of convergence in this volume is on the principles that (1) national problem-solving requires community level participation, (2) community participation requires effective processes to create shared understanding, shared responsibility, shared resources, and shared benefits, and (3) the participants in these processes should include a wide range of community leaders: employers, workers, educators, students, government officials, community organizers, and volunteers.

The literature prepares readers to ask: whose interests are being served by which institutions? What benefits accrue to younger students, adult learners, educators, managers, workers, union leaders, parents, government officials, community service workers and other interests? Can these complex sets of interests be interwoven to serve the needs of individual learners as well as those of institutions?

Because this publication focuses on a narrow, specialized band in the spectrum of education and employment literature, it assumes at least a passing awareness of that larger set of issues and documented activities. The reader should bring to this review some sense of the related social, political, economic, and organizational upheavals and challenges of post-World War II

America. An awareness of the impacts of technological change and social demographics will be particularly useful: how technology progressively removes entry-level jobs from the grasp of the ill-educated and unskilled; how roads and automobiles, prosperity and racial discrimination created suburban and urban residential and work patterns; how young people have become a uniquely structured labor market unto themselves, with progressively greater percentages seeking work and greater percentages unemployed and unemployable in current labor markets; and how the demand for workers has increased dramatically to attract and absorb the massive entry of women, but primarily in lower-paying jobs competitive with young workers.

The reader should bring also some sense of the many modes of experimentation and innovation which have been used to cope with these perplexing problems: the growth of state and national legislation for education and employment and training programs; the growth of independent community-based organizations specializing in social services to selected client groups; the role of private foundations and corporate initiatives in "seeding" the nation with demonstration programs.

Significance for Education, Business, and Labor

Many strands of American history have contributed to the concept and practice of community collaboration joining the institutions of education, business/industry, labor, government, and community. The literature portrays cycles of attraction and rejection in the history of business-education-labor relationships.

The first vocational education legislation, the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, remains a rare and edifying example of how thoughtful and sustained coalition-building brought together diverse sets of interests to form a common purpose which served those individual interests and, through them, the national welfare. The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (now the American Vocational Association) organized the most progressive coalition ever to sponsor a piece of national education legislation. That coalition included: leading educators; the National Association of Manufacturers; the American Federation of Labor; the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People; women's groups; the Chamber of Commerce of the United States; the YMCA; the American Association for the Advancement of Science; American Indian leadership; and thousands of leading citizens concerned about the preparation of young people for an increasingly technological workplace and about the ability of the nation to compete in world markets.

These same concerns gave life about the same time to the profession of vocational guidance and the cooperative education movement. Underlying all was the deep-seated American belief (conceptualized most clearly by John Dewey) that:

> The school must represent present life--life as real and vital to the child as that which he carries on in the home, in the neighborhood, or on the playground. . . the best and deepest moral training is precisely that which one gets through having to enter into proper relations with others in a unity of work and thought (Dewey, in Archambault, 1964).

The modern literature of industry-education-labor collaboration, and of collaborative councils, applies these essential values and themes within a contemporary context. The context itself derives from a sense that the individual's need for unity of work and thought is matched by the educational institution's need for community support in providing meaningful educational experiences for students, and by the work institution's need for skilled, motivated, understanding adults.

The launching and orbiting of the Soviet Union's Sputnik in October, 1957, also launched another generation of converging interests between education and work institutions. The factors of foreign competition and a new technological era were again foremost in the public mind. The National Defense Education Act of 1958, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and the Higher Education Act of 1965 are visible reminders of a veritable explosion of concern for the status of technical and basic skills education in the United States.

Collaborative planning and lobbying brought this legislation into existence, with education associations and industry associations taking the lead. Additionally, many of the education departments of national trade associations date from this period. Finally, it was this cycle of legislation, particularly the Vocational Education Act of 1963, with its amendments of 1968, which established the policy of involving the private sector (particularly employers) in education planning, program development, and monitoring. The mechanisms used to implement this policy were advisory councils at national, state, and local levels.

As in the past, foreign competition and technological innovation are today factors favoring investment in education and a greater role for the private sector in supporting and implementing new programs. As in the past, new technologies carry both the promise of greater employment in new economic arenas and the threat of increased unemployment in old ones. As in the past the unemployability of young people without adequate basic and technical skills shames the nation as an underused resource and as a potential threat to public safety. Once again the connections between education, employment, and economic and human development are being revealed and tested.

Is the current period of discussion and attraction any different, or is it too likely to fade with a mixed impact of achievements and failures? Two intriguing trends argue for more permanence. Noted here briefly, these trends are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2. First, because sophisticated skills are required of even entry-level employees, most employers, particularly the larger corporations, now include skill and career development strategies in their own planning. Dependent on the quality of the education system's "product," and more sensitive than ever to the concepts of personal growth and stages of development, corporate managers now have strong motivations to initiate and sustain communications with their counterparts in educational institutions. Seeking to avoid, or share with taxpayers, the costs of basic and specialized training, employers are being drawn to closer dialog with secondary and postsecondary educators in particular.

The second trend, triggered by the telecommunications revolution, is widely recognized but only vaguely understood in its implications for education, knowledge production, and information transmittal as central factors in economic as well as educational planning. As corporations take on these knowledge-related functions as integral parts of their own missions, the traditional separation of the two sectors becomes more difficult to maintain.

Similarly the direct interests of organized labor are being drawn closer to education, and education institutions closer to an understanding of those interests. Management, too, has a substantial interest in this convergence. But for the most part, the involvement of organized labor with regard to the preparation of young people for work and adult responsibilities has been little sought by educators. With rare exceptions, even the unions themselves have not addressed their shared interest with education and business. What are these converging interests?

- As teachers and college faculties have joined national unions and sought bargaining rights, organized labor has paid closer heed to the role of education institutions as shapers of the attitudes and skills of the succeeding generation. As teachers have rid themselves of status biases and stereotypes regarding organized labor, so have labor organizations rid themselves of biases and stereotypes regarding educators.

- Unions and their members may prove to be the strongest organized source of support for lifelong learning opportunities for all adults in the near future. Organized labor will speak for the education needs of individuals and will prefer educational programs which operate from "neutral turfs" such as schools and colleges. Since adult learners frequently seek to enhance work-related skills, and since tuition reimbursement plans frequently are restricted to work-related programs, enrollments in adult extended learning and community college programs stand to benefit from increased labor leadership in this area.

- The bulk of any school's students are fated to be workers rather then managers. Yet the perspective of American education curricula has been largely managerial. Occupational and vocational education programs have shied away from offering a labor studies perspective. If collaboration is to address the self-interests of students as learners and citizens, closer awareness and understanding of labor history and practices should be part of the collaborative agenda. Of course, any such efforts must be balanced in terms of both labor and management interests.

Summary

From the perspective of the literature on industry-education-labor collaboration, one finds three themes of special significance:

- That individual learners will be motivated to develop academic and vocational skills and positive attitudes towards society if in-school learning is closely linked in the learner's mind to relevant people, places, and opportunities in the immediate community and the larger society. Improved motivation may, in turn, reduce both anti-social behavior and the need for costly remedial programs.

- That maintaining the values of democracy and capitalism requires the participation of employers, workers, and other citizens in support of curriculum development, teacher training, career guidance, and effective educational administration.

- That maintaining a labor supply "aligned" with the market demand for labor is cost effective and requires the participation of knowledgeable business, labor, and education leaders in developing labor market information, forecasting the economic development and employment needs of the local and regional economy, preparing short and long-term guidance for curriculum developers, career guidance planners, students, and the community at large.

Since the days of Dewey, the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, and the "scientific management" approach to human development, these themes have been the subjects of intense promotion and intense criticism. Authors lined up on one side or the other depending on whether they saw benefits accruing to students, educators, business and society as a whole or whether they saw students, parents, and educators as too vulnerable--financially, intellectually, or politically--to withstand the impact of special interests, too weak to protect the schools' role as an imparter of balanced perspectives and critical thinking.

Much of the current debate over collaborative councils has historical ties to debates over the linkages of vocational and career education to the world of work. For the most part there is the assumption that some types of connections are useful and legitimate, for some if not all students. The debate, however, centers on whether actual practices provide the promised benefits. For example: is local and national economic forecasting sufficiently accurate to justify educational investments in new curricula and facilities? Who will pay for and who will benefit from decisions to concentrate school vocational training in a relatively few technical areas? Are community resources (such as classroom speakers, internship placements, and career mentors) used appropriately to motivate learners? Are the essential skills of computation, reading, and writing enhanced? Are community resources concentrated (and stereotyped) for use by some students and not for others? Are students exposed to a business perspective, but not a labor perspective? Are business and labor representatives exposed to a student and teacher perspective. Does "institutional learning" take place so that the effectiveness of institutional linkages is improved over time. Questions such as these connect the concepts and practices of collaborative councils specifically to the mainstream of industry-education-labor collaboration and cooperation.

Conclusion

Educators and public education institutions, particularly secondary education, will be under enormous financial pressures during another decade of population shifts from the young to the old, and of increasing proportions of hispanic and blacks enrolled in public schools. Educators will be hard pressed to educate the public in order to preserve the tax base for public education. Understanding and active support from organized labor and "organized business " will help considerably. From the educator's perspective, and presumably from the perspective of student and parent, the formation of local coalitions supporting education programs may be the most powerful motivation for the activation of collaborative councils. But on this point, this young literature on collaboration has little experience to report. It does, however, point to a future literature still to be written.

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CHAPTER II

THE COMPLEX STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE PRIVATE SECTOR

As we become more of a learning society, it becomes progressively more difficult to decide where education institutions end and the corporate and employment world begins.

From day care (in large part a major entrepreneurial effort at the micro-business level), through independent technical schools and non-profit suppliers of basic skills and training, to postsecondary associate, baccalaureate, and graduate degree programs designed and taught by corporate staffs, enormous quantities of formal learning programs are provided by non-traditional and frequently for-profit suppliers. Looking beyond formal programs to the vast market for informal learning through newspapers, television, computer-videodisc programs, other communication media, community-based organizations such as park and recreation services and YMCA/YWCAs, we quickly see that the arrival of an information-centered society makes demands on the place of traditional schools and colleges in our society.

The education and training functions of schools, colleges, businesses, and unions, and the movements toward collaborative activities among these institutions, can only be understood as components within the larger education and training system, which includes public-sector agencies, professional associations, libraries, parks, cable television and other media publishers, educational brokers, alternative education organizations, and other local

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providers and consumers. The very boundaries of a high school, university or college seem to disappear when corporations and unions provide remedial and vocational skill training, when colleges form research and development subsidiaries or engage in "tailored" technical training, when high school classes build and sell houses, or when corporations and unions establish formal schools and colleges and when learners increasingly receive college credit for learning through life and work experiences outside the academy.

It is not at all clear whether the blurring of these boundaries ought to be taken as a welcome opportunity or an emerging problem. Do these developments undermine the central missions of schools and postsecondary education institutions? Do education and training functions divert the resources of businesses and unions away from their central missions? Or is the transition of a world economy into a new information-centered, service-centered economy forcing a redefinition of the basic missions of education institutions?

Most contemporary discussions emphasize two points to explain the apparently more frequent overlaps and blurring of boundaries between education and the human resource functions of business and labor organizations. The driving force on the education side is said to be falling enrollments. The elementary and secondary schools (both public and private) look to corporations and unions for political and financial support as the natural constituency of young people declines. The postsecondary colleges and universities look to corporations and unions for political and financial support, but even moreso for adult enrollments and research support.

It is a thesis of this report that, although these are important motivations, the movement toward closer relationships between education and work institutions and the trend toward greater dispersal of education, training, and research would continue (albeit with fewer rhetorical flourishes) even were enrollments steady and quality of basic skills adequate.

This thesis is itself a corollary to the main thesis that as education and skill development become critical factors for the efficient functioning of a knowledge-sensitive, complex, and interdependent society, leaders in each sector will act of necessity to create these intersector linkages and to develop simultaneously the capacities of their organizations to perform important functions (such as training) which other organizations cannot adequately perform. The primary implication of this thesis is that the pragmatic relationships between education and work institutions are defined within a context of distinctive core missions. These missions are modified as opportunities arise to include functions which might appear to be closer to the missions of other sectors. A second implication is that shifts in the functions performed by any given institution in a given community occur in a context of the mix of resources, needs, and leadership of the respective institutions to which a specific institution is related. The roles of institutions with regard to education and training are determined more by pressing community-wide requirements for efficiency in the provision of teaching/learning or research services and less by acquiescence to the official missions of organizations.

A third, and crucial, implication of this thesis is that the quality and effectiveness of a community's total teaching/learning and human resources delivery system is dependent upon the extent of accurate communication among the various providers in all the formal sectors: education, business, labor, government, community service (including religious). Suppose, for example, that tax-supported vocational education and career information programs face unexpected budget cuts. Continuity of essential skill training and information dissemination might be quite different in communities where schools and employers have little prior contact as compared to communities where such contacts are nurtured at numerous administrative and political levels across numerous activities. Or suppose technological retooling requires massive readjustments in a local economy. In one case these changes might be announced with little or no advance warning or preparation. In another multi-sector planning at local or regional level might be able to develop resources and design a readjustment plan in time to at least minimize the most turbulent features of the unavoidable changes.

This line of thinking leads to a fourth implication: the need for the invention of intermediary structures and organizations which can monitor institutional needs and activities at the local level, be objective forums for the analysis and discussion of problems, resources, and creative ideas designed for local application, and which can help community leaders arrive at consensus regarding the distribution of functions and institutional responsibilities appropriate to the needs of a given community at a given point in time. Because core missions remain relatively stable, the major impact of careful management of community resources is on those activities which connect organizations: activities such as career counseling and information, skill training, and placement in career jobs or temporary work experiences. But intermediary, consensus-building organizations can also play political roles in developing alliances needed for legislative lobbying and/or influencing public opinion on specific issues.

Thus, starting from the basic rapidity of technological change and the corresponding demand for efficient institutional responses we arrive at the need for community-level intermediary organizations. This logic seems bound to become more prevalent throughout developed nations dependent on high technology communications systems.

This logic bids us to pay closer attention to local collaborative organizations. Even where those organizations may appear to be performing relatively minor roles--as is the case with many collaborative industry-education-labor councils today, the very fact of their existence should be interpreted as a testing of the waters, a kind of getting-to-know-you stage in an evolutionary process toward what we will call here "performance-based communities." Simply defined, a performance-based community is one in which community leaders balance their loyalty to organizational self-interests with a loyalty to the welfare of the community as a whole and to the optimum performance of core functions (economic, health, education and training, public safety, etc.) regardless of narrow institutional missions. Intermediary organizations such as collaborative councils are essential to the sustained effectiveness of performance-based communities.

This discussion has emphasized those points where the behaviors of education and work organizations offer similarities. Given the purposes of this study, this emphasis is inevitable. But readers should be aware that any alliances of education institutions with business, labor, and government organizations are still limited by the essential function of protecting inquiry and criticism in all disciplines--whether in matters scientific, political, aesthetic, or economic. And it is still the case that the freedom of belief and speech, the freedom to be critical, is more frequently, albeit not perfectly, protected in educational than in corporate or union settings.

The creation of collaborative inter-institutional relationships also is constrained, or ought to be, by consideration for the roles that educational, business, labor, government, and other organizations play in the lives of individuals.

Learning can occur at any time, in any place. The attempts of higher education, business, or organized labor to assume some larger degree of responsibility for the quality and content of individual learning in non-traditional settings can be seen as either assistance to or as intrusion on the efforts of individuals to find their ways in the world. Individuals are intimately affected by the ways in which higher education and the private sector carry out their respective responsibilities.

Colleges and corporations alike endorse, and even claim to provide sanctuary to, the concept of individualism. Likewise, both claim major contributions to the aggregate mental energy and wealth of the nation. Free-market capitalism, academic freedom, and the core sociopolitical freedoms of speech and religion are each different but essential pillars of American values and institutions (Stauffer, 1980).

Yet a key distinction is that while the aim of business is to direct individualism toward the production of economic wealth, the core aim of education is to direct individualism toward self-knowledge and from that self-knowledge toward world knowledge, of which economic wealth is but one part. If there is a corporation where Kant, calculus, Marxian economics, anthropology, engineering, basket-weaving, and yoga are taught, it is an exception to the rule, and probably a marvel. Under the aegis of higher education such a melange is merely to be expected. However, few would rely on a higher education institution to successfully launch a space shuttle, produce and market a new soap, or manufacture computers on a large scale. This distinction creates strains that inevitably are felt in the formation of serious relationships and alliances between higher education and business.

It is therefore important to ask to what extent any proposed or operating linkage between the business, labor, and education communities may restrict or expand those institutions' ability to define and enforce their own senses of proper behavior. That these boundaries and restrictions exist is readily acknowledged providing a source of endlessly ebbing and flowing debate (Ravitch, 1978; Feinberg and others, 1980). Whether the present enthusiasm for postsecondary liaisons with the corporate community may be of such a scale as to force historic shifts in the relationship is a more immediate and substantial question.

The question is made even more complex by the fact that secondary and postsecondary institutions, having become increasingly dependent on federal and state government aid, are now battered by government regulations and declining enrollments among youth (Giamatti, 1980; Moynihan, 1980). In the face of declining resources, educational institutions are turning toward corporations and occasionally toward labor unions in search of sympathy, political allies, and new resources and enrollments--perhaps without thinking through the consequences of these alliances.

After briefly reviewing the history of relationships between business, labor and education, this chapter will discuss the present setting for such alliances from the perspective of the four basic functions that characterize work-education collaboration: (1) the production and distribution of teaching/learning services; (2) the production and distribution of new ideas and products; (3) the flow of human resources between education and employment; and (4) the process of strategy development for education-business-labor relationships. Issues and strategies for the future will then be presented.

History of Industry-Education-Labor Relationships

This chapter is an exploration of the forms and functions of relationships between education institutions and the private sector. The main theme applicable to business-education-labor collaboration at the elementary and secondary levels have already been described in Chapter I. This chapter attempts to delve deeper by examining the full spectrum of functional relationships available to education and work institutions. To do so it is useful to narrow the discussion to the complex relationships between higher education and business at the postsecondary level.

The history of industry-education-labor relationships has two very distinct sub-parts: relationships with higher (postsecondary) education and relationships with elementary and secondary education. A third area of relevance is the history of the growth of education and training functions within the business and labor sectors, independent of or even in reaction to direct experiences between those sectors and education.

From about a century ago, when the creation of Johns Hopkins and Cornell signaled the active involvement of industrialists in formulating the new purposes, content and methods of higher education, the two worlds have been interlocked. Thorstein Veblen, for example, observed eighty years ago that it was the inexorable influence of the modern corporation and its industries that first moved the established higher education institutions away from classical studies and toward research (Veblen,(1899)1953).

According to Veysey (1965), the 1890s marked the first time that overt student recruitment strategies were employed. College presidents and professors catered to a wider clientele: "Bearing such titles as 'The Practical Value of a College Education,' 'Does College Education Pay?' and 'College Men First Among Successful Citizens,' these writings helped establish an atmosphere of welcome for boys of worldly aspiration" (p. 348). This period initiated the credentialing function of higher education and "old boy networks" that have become such core elements of the higher education-business human resource system. Thus began the first great wave of democratization in

American higher education, with the new corporate management class most in mind.

The founders of Johns Hopkins, Cornell, the land grant state universities, and the early technical colleges were enthusiastic about the contributions of American industry to the wealth, both intellectual and economic, of the nation and to its position in world affairs. They welcomed the concept of stewardship, that wealth was entrusted by God into the hands of capable individuals whose personal responsibility it was to distribute that wealth to benefit the society at large. More than welcomed, philanthropy was expected from the private sector (Veysey, 1965).

Not all were persuaded by this argument, however. On the one hand, many fortunes never found their way to public purpose despite the examples of Rockefeller, Carnegie, and others. On the other hand, numerous scholars resisted too close an association with "monied interests."

No academic trend excited more heated comment at the time than this one. John Dewey asserted in 1902: "Institutions (of learning) are ranked by their obvious material prosperity, until the atmosphere of money-getting and money-spending hides from view the interests for the sake of which money alone has a place." In an extreme form such indictments charged that university leaders took their orders, more or less directly, from industrial magnates. Harvard's John Jay Chapman noted that "as the boss has been the tool of businessmen in politics, so the college president has been his agent in education" (Veysey, 1965, p. 346).

This pattern of attraction and avoidance continues today. Corporate philanthropic support for education, $870 million in 1979, has averaged about 36 percent of all corporate giving annually for the last fifteen years (Council for Financial Aid to Education, n.d.). But corporate interest is rot without reservations. While 96 percent of 292 corporate chief executives surveyed in 1979 agreed that "corporate self-interest is best served by preserving the basic freedoms in the university" and that "competition among ideas is essential to the vitality of free enterprise," over half had some doubt about their willingness to provide support without interfering in academic policies and practices. Over three-fourths complained of a liberal bias and lack of support for market-based systems among university faculty and students. About one-third said that the economic or political views of faculty are an important factor in corporate decisions to support a university (Research and Forecasts, Inc., 1979). Ambivalence of this kind permeates these interinstitutional relationships and creates a strong case for building careful balances into new relationships.

The core of the problem, and the critical element differentiating business-higher education relations eighty years ago from those of today, is that business and education were less equal institutions then, with few goods on either side worth exchanging. They spoke entirely different languages and envisioned for themselves entirely different purposes. Higher education could confer some legitimacy and prestige on those it touched but had few direct benefits of real scale to offer industrialists and politicians. Similarly, business and industry had little to offer higher education other than financial support of a worthy social institution.

During the past thirty years, however, a complex network of relationships has developed and is still developing between business and higher education. The interconnections are interpersonal, interinstitutional, and intellectual in nature. The prestige universities are as affected as the community colleges and technical schools. Key factors in the creation of this network are:

- Corporate presence on the boards of trustees of colleges and universities, private and public, and domination of corporate board rooms and planning staff since World War II by college and graduate school trained managers and technocrats

- Expanded corporate educational philanthropy, stimulated in part by the formation in 1952 of the Council for Financial Aid to Education
- Consultantships and community service projects of faculty members and extensive use of real-world sites and learning experiences for students
- Availability of corporate and union tuition assistance
- Growth of professional associations and their publications as forums for "cultural exchanges" between members of the two sectors
- Ability of community colleges to penetrate the market for all types of occupational training, in part creating that market while transferring costs from employers to individuals and taxpayers
- Improved career guidance, student placement, and employee recruitment processes that attempt to make postsecondary education more of an integrated function for the career advancement of individuals
- Unions, too, have moved closer to education institutions and their concerns, in good part because of the unionization of school and higher education facilities.

Without this intertwining of ideas and people, institutional collaboration would be impossible to achieve. Taken together with common interests in solving economic, political, and technological problems, these relationships form the basis for coalition building (Stauffer, 1980).

Yet all available evidence still reveals the modest influence of these relationships on the present activities of colleges, universities, and corporations. Corporations account for only about 3 percent of campus-based basic research. With a few notable exceptions, few higher education institutions have made off-campus internships, cooperative education, and other experiential learning programs central methods within their curriculum. Career planning and placement information systems are only beginning to have effects. While corporations may stand ready to be used more often as learning sites, their potential is relatively untapped (Lusterman and Gorlin, 1980). Use of tuition assistance programs by nonmanagement employees rarely exceeds 3 percent of the eligible work force. The corporation that actively encourages management and other employees to pursue continuing education beyond immediate work-related training is exceedingly rare (Charner, 1980; Knox, 1979). The great bulk of corporate human resource education and training thus far is performed in-house or through consultants and very little through campus-corporate programs.

A theme emerges from these observations: Although the relationships between the higher education and business sectors may be complex, they do not yet engage the vested interests of the two sides. We have not yet reached a point where the enrollments of higher education or the profits of corporations have been tied to direct collaborative planning and action. Nor have we reached a point where the benefits and costs of collaborative planning and action have been clearly stated, placed in proportion to the overall missions of the two sectors, and used to develop a comprehensive consensus on the future distribution of education, training, and research in the United States. This is not to say that such linkages are not feasible or not already being tested. Whether they are inevitable or desirable must be left to discussion, which this sourcebook hopes to stimulate.

Current Higher Education-Business Relationships

The changing nature of higher education-business relationships will become more clear through examples of collaboration in each of four functional areas:

1. The production and distribution of teaching/learning experiences and services. Which institutions have been and will be responsible for adding economic and other values to human resources?

2. The production and distribution of new ideas and products. Who is and will be responsible for basic and applied research?

3. The flow of human resources between education and employment. Who will design, finance, and manage (in sum, who will control) information and opportunities for directing individuals into education and work?

4. The process of strategy development. Who has been and will be responsible for deliberate planning and communication among policy makers influencing the structure of education and business relationships for the three previous functions.

These four categories are derived from considering the exchanges of resources that higher education and business can offer to each other: people, money, ideas, power, time, places. Can collaborative activities in these four areas produce mutual respect, trust, reliability, and demonstrated results that will benefit individual businesses, higher education institutions, and adult learners?

Teaching and Learning. By shattering the administrative lockstep of the standard degree program, the more innovative community colleges and universities of the past twenty years created within themselves the attitudinal flexibility and administrative agility essential to dealings with other sectors, including employment institutions. Though traditional colleges and universities severely criticized community colleges and nontraditional institutions for adopting such innovations as open enrollment, field experience and cooperative education, assessment of prior learning from life and work experience, and other individualized programs for adult learners, many of those traditional universities today have implemented similar programs and policies.

One might now find on college campuses numerous programs involving the corporate sector (many of the following examples are taken from Bulpitt and Lohff, 1980):

- Cooperative education programs. These programs are college-wide in places like La Guardia Community College in New York City and Northeastern University in Boston.
- College-coordinated apprenticeship and pre-apprenticeship programs. For example, Dallas County Community College District works with local automobile dealers and with Dallas CETA, construction contractors, and area electrical and carpenters apprenticeship programs.
- Tuition assistance programs. For example, Kimberly-Clark Corporation instituted programs with the University of Wisconsin/Oshkosh and other higher education agencies. Over 200 union-management

contracts (the UAW-GM contract is probably the most generous) make tuition assistance available to thousands of union members.

- Industry-services programs. Many state economic development programs provide vocational training through secondary and postsecondary education institutions, frequently using employer-provided instructors, equipment, and classrooms (Paul and Carlos, 1981).

- Joint curriculum improvement efforts. Examples include occupational advisory committees, corporate-sponsored in-service programs such as General Electric's Educators-in-Industry Program, and Central Piedmont (Charlotte, N.C.) Community College's Project Upgrade.

- Small business management training. Brookdale Community College in New Jersey, for example, houses a Small Business Development Center, a Small Business Institute, and a chapter of the Senior Corps of Retired Executives (SCORE), funded by the federal government's Small Business Administration.

- Courses for management. Miami-Dale Community College and a regional banking corporation developed a for-credit, in-house program using materials, instructors, and media equipment from both college and company. Harvard's Advanced Management Program, conducted since 1943, is the oldest in the nation, with 11,000 graduates.

- Numerous examples of college and university programs serving labor unions and their members have been described in Stack and Hutton (1980).

Meanwhile, corporations have taken steps of their own to fill perceived gaps in the nation's educational services. Few educators appreciate that the teaching/learning function has as venerable a history outside educational institutions as inside them. Private sector initiatives range from remediation, motivation, and pre-employment skill training to postgraduate learning of the highest level. Among the more familiar examples are the following:

- The Bell System (AT&T) spent $1.7 billion on employee education and training in 1980.

- Arthur D. Little, Inc., the General Motors Institute and Wang Institute are accredited degree-granting institutions.

- The George Meany Center for Labor Studies, Inc. was established in 1970 to provide initial and advanced training for labor union members. A college degree program taught at the Center leads to a B.A. degree in labor studies from Antioch College. Apprenticeship and associate degree programs have been established with other colleges across the nation.

- Apprenticeship training funds negotiated by unions and management have been used for many years in the construction trades and other industries to establish independent schools and training centers.
- Courses designed and conducted entirely in-house may be evaluated by a credit-recommending authority such as the American Council on Education or the New York State Office of Non-Collegiate Sponsored Instruction.
- Control Data Corporation, Chrysler Learning Institute, Singer, and RCA, among many others, compete with schools and colleges as providers of basic, advanced, and employability skill training.
- The increasingly active roles of print and electronic publishers in corporate training and the new markets for home computers, videocassettes and videodiscs will have a major influence on future formats for teaching and learning.

The point should be obvious: Higher education does not have an exclusive hold over the teaching/learning function. As business expands its training capacity and hires larger numbers of imaginative, ambitious professionals to staff its training programs, encroachments will be made on the formal education system. But a head-on battle need not happen if the two sides can agree on roles appropriate to their community and economic contexts.

Examples of these mutually satisfactory relationships have become more visible and more prevalent just in the last two years (for example see Parnell and Yarrington, 1982, and the Committee for Economic Development, 1982).

New Ideas, New Products. Historians, sociologists, language instructors, anthropologists, and other humanists, as well as engineers, physicists, chemists, biologists, geographers, and economists all produce ideas. Though strengthening the overall economic and enrollment posture of a postsecondary education institution, crucial investments in engineering, business, or basic science education will not hide the fact that, in sharp contrast, the social and aesthetic disciplines must struggle to define their relevance to corporate needs and corporate investments in campus programs.

A recent news article, "Campuses Cementing Business Alliances" (Lohr, Nov. 16, 1980), told of a "global race to spawn new technologies" and "a flow of corporate dollars into university laboratories." Among the examples cited were:

- A Massachusetts Institute of Technology-Exxon ten-year $7 million program for advanced study of more efficient burning processes
- Harvard and Monsanto's long-term, multimillion dollar program on the biology and biochemistry of organ development
- Johns Hopkins and Estee Lauder's establishment of an institute of dermatology
- Cal Tech's cooperative research program with half a dozen companies--IBM, Intel, and Xerox among them--concerned about advance design work for microprocessors.

Current joint research programs recall the initial boom in defense and space R&D in the 1960s. Peripheral industries clustered around universities (such as Boston's Route 128, northern California's Silicon Valley, and North Carolina's Research Triangle) created consultantships, internships, and small business spinoffs into new technologies. Symbiotic R&D relationships justified area economic development strategies that tied business site selection to the research and management training capabilities of area universities and the technician training capabilities of community colleges.

The trend toward more corporate investment in on-campus research would gain substantial momentum if legislation such as the Research Revitalization Act of 1980 were enacted to provide tax credits for corporate-supported campus research. In November 1980, Congress enacted a bill giving businesses and universities more authority to commercially exploit inventions developed by them under government grants and contracts. These examples of avenues for indirect rather than direct federal investment in "hard" science research may provide the policy direction for future corporate-university R&D efforts.

A less glamorous example of the flow of ideas between business and education involves the technical assistance provided to colleges and schools to update administrative, transportation, personnel, and financial systems. This flow works both ways as professors consult with businesses and unions.

Flow of Human Resources. To survive, colleges and universities must demonstrate their continuing contribution to the core social function of giving people the skills they need to earn a living and providing social institutions with people capable of performing needed social roles. The flow of human resources, from an institutional perspective, is a three-stage process: intake, treatment and productive use, and transfer to the outside world.

Under the intake category can be included:

- Corporate-sponsored scholarship programs and industry-wide recruitment/scholarship programs, such as the chemical industry's minorities in engineering (ChIME) program. Organized labor unions at local, state, and national levels also provide scholarships for union members and their families and in some cases for general applicants
- Higher education-sponsored career information and exploration programs, such as M.I.T.'s Work in Technology and Science project
- Joint information and outreach programs, such as Career Guidance Institutes initiated by the National Alliance of Business and cosponsored by colleges and community organizations
- Intermediary information sources, such as educational brokers and federally sponsored Education Information Centers, which work with employers and higher education
- Corporate programs such as Polaroid Corporation's Tuition Assistance Office.

Within the treatment and productive use stage are numerous examples built around teaching/learning activities such as cooperative education, internships, industry-services, and apprenticeship programs cited earlier. Coordinator positions are an important part of this process, including co-op and industry-services coordinators on campuses and liaison positions within corporations and trade associations, such as Chamber of Commerce and National Alliance of Business regional human resource managers. Education directors and representatives of national and international unions (for example, the AFL-CIO's Human Resources Development Institute) and state and central labor councils are their counterparts for organized labor.

Flow of human resources is enhanced by the employer's ability to use the teaching/learning activity as a means of advance assessment and screening of prospective employees, by the learner's ability to develop personal contacts and a work experience resume, and by the higher education institution's ability to reduce its isolation and to establish a credible "track record" with corporate personnel and training departments.

In the transfer, or output, stage can be included the career guidance and placement offices found on almost all college campuses, providers of occupational information such as State Occupational Information Coordinating Committees and corporate developers of occupational information materials and systems, and various collaborative councils whose purpose is to smooth the movement of individuals between education and work.

Strategy Development. Leadership will be required to move beyond individual examples to a broad consensus on how higher education and business, together with government and labor, can meet the nation's manpower, training, and research needs. Far more than new dollars, leadership is what will make the difference. Far more than rhetoric, effective mechanisms for sustaining communications and collaborative programs are essential to effective leadership.

Three examples of problem-solving mechanisms are collaborative councils, credible projects and programs, and conferences. Collaborative councils speak to the problem of how to maintain leadership communication across the sectors on a particular topic or set of topics over an extended period of time. Credible projects and programs address the problem of how to implement agreements made at leadership levels or how to demonstrate the utility of new services on an experimental basis prior to top leadership involvement. Conferences are valuable for their cumulative effects on network building rather than for their one-time contributions. Taken together with more informal contacts, formal "centers," and coordinator positions within corporations and colleges, these mechanisms are the infrastructure upon which coalitions are formed.

Collaborative councils address the common interests of both sectors:

- The Joint Council on Economic Education was formed in 1947 with business, labor, and education support to assist economic literacy programs throughout the nation.
- The Council on Corporate/College Communications, organized in 1976 by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities and eight major corporations, sponsored campus-based programs, including businessperson-in-residence and faculty-management forums.
- Local and state-initiated industry-education or work-education councils bring together multisector leadership in at least 140 communities nationwide. Networks of councils exist in several states, notably California, Connecticut, Michigan, and New York. Councils are represented by two associations: the National Work-Education Consortium and the National Association of Industry-Education Cooperation.
- Approximately 450 local and state Private Industry Councils (PICs) were created in 1978 under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). Mandated membership includes a business majority and representation from other sectors, including local higher education institutions.
- The Business-Higher Education Forum, organized in 1978 by the American Council on Education, consists of chief executive officers of major corporations and college and university presidents and chancellors. In 1981 the topics on the forum's agenda are energy research, engineering manpower, capital formation, and cooperative R&D.
- The University Advisory Council of the American Council of Life Insurance was established in 1967 as a forum for discussions among college presidents, leaders of education associations, and top executives of the life insurance industry. The council sponsors

meetings, programs such as Business Executive in Residence, and conferences on long-term societal issues.

- Secondary and postsecondary education institutions receiving federal Vocational Education Act monies must establish local advisory councils. Local membership is typically weighted heavily toward employers. These councils tend to focus on curriculum issues.

Credible projects and programs are building blocks, the "nuts and bolts," of institutional relationships. Many examples were noted earlier in this article under the teaching/learning, new ideas and products, and human resource flow functions. These are included under strategy development because, when successful, they provide credibility and contacts for subsequent initiatives and are, therefore, integral to long-term planning of intersector strategies. A single example should suffice: In many communities, cooperative education programs are most closely identified with corporate-campus alliances (Wilson, 1980). The responsibilities of employers, students, and faculty are easy to understand, and the rewards are tangible and immediate. A few colleges make the cooperative experience the central point around which curricula, guidance, financial aid, and job placement are provided. Enthusiastic national evaluations resulted in expansion of federal funding for cooperative education and inclusion of co-op students (whether or not economically disadvantaged) among the target groups for whom employers can receive Targeted Job Tax Credits (Elsman and Robock, 1979).

Conferences can also be designed as strategy-building mechanisms. For example, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, the American Vocational Association, and the American Society for Training and Development jointly sponsored a 1980 conference on "employee training for productivity" with the purpose of opening communications and cooperation among the constituencies of the three groups (Yarrington, 1980). The twelve-year-old League for Innovation in the Community College group of seventeen community colleges, provides another example. A June 1980 league conference on cooperative efforts between community colleges and local businesses resulted in a publication describing over 200 linkage projects under way (Bulpitt and Lohff, 1980). In December 1980, the league pursued this theme at an executive retreat for college presidents and top corporate executives.

Similarly, the growth of labor studies as a major discipline on many campuses, and the many linkages between the University and College Labor Education Association and organized labor have resulted in coordinated planning. The UCLEA and the AFL-CIO Education Department hold their annual conferences in tandem.

The point of these examples is simple: Recent years have seen increasingly effective talk and action aimed at creating sustained communications between business and higher education and between organized labor and higher education. These mechanisms have helped produce ideas, commitments, demonstration projects, and programs with impact locally and/or nationally in each of the four functional areas. What has happened thus far, however, is piecemeal and exploratory.

The Path of Innovation: Toward a System Perspective

Ironically, today's movement toward closer relationships between business and higher education is in many ways a tribute to the success of the reformist ferment within higher education during the past two decades, when innovation had little to do with business. It is interesting that Change magazine and The Cornell Center for Improvement in Undergraduate Education's remarkable The Yellow Pages of Undergraduate Innovations (1976) did not even use "business cooperation" as an index heading for the 3,000 entries; and "community cooperation" consisted mostly of cooperation among local colleges.

Scattered and sometimes visible higher education projects involving business and other community agencies set valuable precedents; they showed what could be done. But they were incidental to the more pressing issues facing higher education managers, issues that were well documented by the Carnegie Commission (1972), the "Newman" Report on Higher Education (Newman and others, 1971), and the Commission on Non-Traditional Study (1973). These studies emphasized the importance of expanded educational opportunities, especially access to higher education for minorities, women, and older adults; diversified instructional techniques and curricular offerings; expanded support services to make full educational opportunity feasible; and administrative restructuring to make educational opportunity possible and meaningful.

The experiential education movement played a leadership role by breaking new ground in identifying new groups of students, new sources of faculty, new learning opportunities in their communities, new formats for interdisciplinary study on campus, new criteria for assessing learner performance, new ways of developing and applying academic standards, and new procedures for working with external organizations and facilitating student and faculty involvement with those organizations (The Cornell Center for Improvement in Undergraduate Education, 1974; Ritterbush, 1972; Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1980; and Keeton and Tate, 1978). Questions about who learns, who teaches, and what time, place, money, support services, and administrative procedures are involved--questions thought radical (if thought at all) in 1960--had become commonplace topics by 1980.

What appears to be new about the current decade is that the policy and administrative revolution arising from the reforms of the 1960s and early 1970s in higher education is gaining momentum at the same time as employer and union-based education and training programs are being expanded and reformed.

Employers, too, have experienced a decade or more of expansion and reform of the concepts and practice of corporate education and training. Programs are more numerous and more diverse in scope. Human resource development (HRD) has become a function in its own right, separate from personnel administration. Human resource planning is only now becoming part of overall corporate strategy development. External human resource factors such as the performance of school systems and universities have only recently been widely recognized as direct concerns of corporate leadership rather than as peripheral community relations or philanthropic issues. It is no coincidence, for example, that banking and insurance institutions with community-wide interests have taken special leadership in local and national education and human resource developments.

Cross-cultural mixing and matching of the two sectors is now taking place with some frequency. Assuming these communications result in trust, not suspicion, what do the consequent programmatic relationships imply? How will learners benefit? And who will pay the piper?

From a concept of a "higher education" system, we seem to be headed toward a concept of a lifelong learning system (Fraser, 1980), in which education and training institutions are but one major component. Others are employer institutions; labor unions and professional associations; community services (libraries, educational brokers, and nonprofit special and civic interest groups); and telecommunications (Carpenter, 1980; Charner, 1980; American Council on Life Insurance, 1979; Stack and Hutton, 1980). Though the system is not yet in place, the components are recognizable and the mechanisms, technologies, and concepts are increasingly available. The challenge for innovation in the 1980s will be to put these pieces together in ways that balance creatively the historic tensions created by the enthusiasms and suspicions of leaders and followers in higher education and business.

Business and Higher Education Relationships: Toward Strategy

In education as in politics, the foundation for strategy is demographics (Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1980; Crossland, 1980; Frances, 1980). Beyond basic demographics, three factors force realignments in all four functions of corporate-higher education relations. First, the pace of technological innovation has created demands for massive and frequent retraining (perhaps even reeducation) of the nation's labor force. Second, allocations of resources for education are finite and are being redistributed as the average age of the population shifts upward and as alternative claims are made on capital. Third, employers and others perceive failure on the part of education institutions--both secondary and postsecondary--to transmit knowledge, skills, and values needed to survive in a highly competitive world economy. This last argument is especially devastating because almost all education institutions are direct or indirect beneficiaries of tax subsidies. When public confidence decreases, a deadly spiral of declining resources and declining capability sets in. The question is whether higher education will be given enough time and resources to prove that it has the leadership capacity to help employers, unions, and individuals meet the nation's skill requirements during the next decade.

These demographic, technology, resource, and public confidence factors impinge on the relationships between higher education leaders and their corporate counterparts. Both sectors, together with other institutions, will need to come to terms with such issues as:

- Career mobility. Will increasing economic constraints limit the financial capability of individuals to change careers and seek retraining? Will opportunities for career mobility exist within corporations as they have in the past decade and will corporations encourage upward career mobility as a motivating factor for formal learning?

- Investments. Where will national, corporate, and union policies place investments in human capital as a priority? Will investment decisions assume that human skill development is a necessary precondition of economic and political health? If so, will this assumption be pursued through public and private investments in higher education institutions, through corporate training, through communications media, or through other means?

- *Work patterns*. Will work patterns be made more flexible to accommodate adults? As more adults work, can balance be achieved between the workplace's need for job performance and the individual's need for personal learning and leisure?

- *Consensus*. To what extent will consensus be feasible--whether at community, state, or national levels--on the importance of education and training in the life of the nation? What kinds of agreements will be reached about functional responsibilities appropriate to each sector and the sharing of responsibilities for defining institutional and political policies? What leverage will individual learners have over the formulation of institutional consensus?

- *Tuition costs*. Will increasing costs reduce the numbers of middle-class youths who for a hundred years have been and still are the core of higher education enrollments? Will state and federal tuition subsidies for the "general welfare" be transferred back to individuals as direct costs or to corporations through training budgets? Could costs become so excessive that post-high school job entry might become a prerequisite for higher education studies financed selectively by employers?

This chapter is concerned with how leaders in higher education and business, both at local and national levels, can develop appropriate strategies for collaboration. The major liberal arts and research universities differ in purposes and problems from smaller colleges and community colleges just as major international corporations differ from their suppliers and from local small businesses. Given this diversity in both sectors, are there common needs and resources that form the basis for relationships built on exchanges of substantial benefits to each sector and at acceptable costs?

What higher education today has the ability to deliver and what employers desperately require is skilled labor. A crisis in skilled manpower extends from the highly technical computer, engineering, and basic research occupations to entry-level jobs of almost all kinds in the service as well as manufacturing sectors. Concurrently, the pace of technological change and opportunities for career changes have created a critical need for cyclical "retooling" of working adults in addition to the more traditional preparation of new entrants into the professions.

American managers have historically assumed that "experience is the best teacher" and relied on on-the-job training and experience to correct the inadequacies of the education system. It was expected that new lawyers and engineers as well as clerks and carpenters would have to be brought "up to speed." But more than ever, modern work requires sophisticated preparation. For higher as well as secondary education, therefore, the first challenge is to help learners meet the basic entry requirements of the modern workplace at technician or professional levels. The second challenge is to compete with corporations and many diverse providers in delivering advanced skills to technicians and managers alike. The third challenge, much more difficult still, is to compete with media and a broad mix of other providers in delivering cultural and social education to individual learners.

At the first level, business is likely to rely on support from the formal education sector. At the second level, the two sides will have to cooperate to develop arrangements keyed to local circumstances. At the third level, higher education institutions will have to rely on support from other institutions, notably business and organized labor. For just as corporations and unions receive most of their new workers through the institutional funnel of secondary and higher education, so higher education must look to employers and unions as the institutional connecting points for access to adult learners. Simply put, business leaders and their organizations can offer higher education three strengths: political power, economic resources, and access to adult learners.

In the political arena, business leaders gain their leverage by being net contributors to the wealth of government through direct taxes and, more importantly, through the taxes paid by employees and peripheral enterprises. With organized labor, and to a much greater extent than labor in most states and communities, private employers influence public opinion and public policy on the financing of higher education. Employer and union support for adequate public financing of public higher education, or for appropriate policies regarding private higher education, will be essential in the next decade. But that support will not be forthcoming unless compensating benefits are received.

On the economic side, employers invest substantial resources in employee recruitment and training. What portions of this expense are necessary in-house? What could be spent through higher education organizations? Enrollments and economics have forced college administrators to ask these questions. Responding to every need of the corporation may not be appropriate. But universities, colleges, and technical schools all have some specialties or can develop some that are consistent with their mission and of value to particular employers. The fact that businesses, through their tuition assistance programs for employees, control the nation's largest and least used source of funding for collegiate adult education remains largely unexplored (Charner and others, 1978; Rogers and Shore, 1980). Employers also have research needs. Use of university faculty as consultants and business-funded research are two aspects of this not unusual relationship.

Concerning the access issue, business leaders control (to a degree rarely appreciated by educators) the very structure and content of higher education communications with the vast majority of adult learners. Just as high schools are a funnel point for college access to younger learners, so are employers and unions the natural institutional connecting points to adults. Control over schedules, facilities, location, wages, benefits, career development, and technology already makes employers a major determining factor in the scale of adult enrollments and the breadth of subjects covered. That individuals pursue formal learning despite the rigidity of modern employment patterns only makes one wonder what more flexible and supportive work patterns would bring (Charner, 1980; Shore, 1980). Finally, just as colleges control access to certain kinds of learning, so employers control the number, types, and financial rewards of the jobs whose availability so often motivates learners to defer present income and leisure in preference for academic studies.

Reprise

One large and generous corporation articulates its criteria for philanthropy and other involvements with higher education: assuring a flow of new employees, support of basic research in areas related to corporate interests, the quality of the institution, a preference for privately controlled colleges and universities as sources of educational diversity, and a preference for proximity to company locations (O'Connor, 1980).

The search for business-higher education relationships must start from what the two institutions want now from those relationships. The criteria just listed surely constitute as succint and typical a list as might be found on the corporate side. On the campus side, the answer may be even more succinct: enrollments and tuition. Concern for consistency with the subject areas and levels of instruction presently offered, for the scheduling of offerings, and for the prerogatives of faculty surely are present, but whether these concerns are seen as obstacles or standards will vary with the beholder.

The bigger problem for the two sectors and for others is to work within the "now" concerns and needs while moving the discussion to anticipation of future concerns and needs. Each sector, each institution, each person will have an independent sense of what these may be. Only through dialogue, research and actual practice will understandings emerge about the capabilities of the sectors to articulate their needs and assist each other toward solutions.

As business executives and union officials are responsible for the survival of their organizations, so higher education administrators are responsible for theirs. Ultimately, the point of seeking interrelationships is to share that responsibility and, in so doing, ensure the legitimacy and acceptance of each sector's contributions to society. Still at question is whether sufficient numbers of business, higher education, and other institutional leaders perceive these larger needs and the issues around which those needs will be articulated.

Also at issue is whether the interests of individual adult learners will be met through the deliberations and actions of institutions. The interests of learners as consumers of formal educational opportunities rest at present on a combination of their own resources and subsidies of educational institutions derived largely from public tax policies and direct financial aid to institutions and individuals.

The preservation of a consumer perspective in the formulation of public policy may very well depend on political collaboration among the major institutions of business, labor, and education. From this counterbalancing may come more abundant learning opportunities as well as increased understanding of how interinstitutional collaborations may be implemented with due regard for the integrity of diverse institutional missions and structures and for the learning needs and independence of individuals. Without balance and diversity, the outlook would be far bleaker.

Justice Frankfurter once described the "four essential freedoms" of a university as the freedoms "to determine for itself on academic ground who may teach, what may be taught, how it should be taught, and who may be admitted to study" (Moynihan, 1980, p. 32). These essential freedoms have indeed been at the core of higher education's integrity as a distinct institution. Yet today they may also describe corporate education and training.

A skeptical view would admit to the risk that the end result of all these efforts described in this volume, if they are carelessly pursued, could be the demise of higher education as an independent and critical enterprise, replaced by an intermeshed human resource sybsystem directed by an oligarchical economy and polity. A more positive view of the future of higher education-business collaboration would anticipate enormous opportunities for creative thinking and program development within a vital mix of democratic institutions.

An Overview of Labor Relations with Higher Education

The history of labor relationships with higher education is scarcely treated at all in the leading histories of higher education. Neither organized labor unions nor the individual (yet undifferentiated) "worker" can be found in much more than a passing reference. Histories of the labor movement offer more insight, yet they too pay only cursory attention. Monographs on the subject are more likely to derive from academics interested in labor history than in education history.

In sum, the main facts of the relationships among the two sectors up to the present decade impress more by the separation of than the interaction between the sectors. Two well-informed participants on the scene describe unions and higher education as "traditional antagonists" only recently discovering the advantages of working together.

For the most part those advantages have been identified with the teaching/learning function with the intent of improving the knowledge and skills of workers generally and union leaders particularly. Colleges and universities have not, and still are not, seen as preparatory training grounds for union members and leaders. The workplace, not the campus, is the source of human resource flows into union leadership. Nor is the campus yet a significant source of new ideas and "products" for the labor movement. And the labor movement, itself with little capital for investments in ideas and products, competes only on the fringes for the attention of higher education resources. At the networking level, union leaders are rarely found on college and university boards of trustees or active in alumni networks. The room for change and innovation in all these areas remains vast.

The unionization of teaching faculties in the 1970s appears in the main literature of higher education as the first notable connection between the two sectors, ignoring the fact that blue collar staff have been organized on many campuses for several decades, and ignoring the history of worker education altogether. Nor, when mentioned, is the real distinction between education for workers and education for unions always clear.

The leading facts concerning worker education and the related fields of labor education and labor studies have been summarized by Dwyer (1977) and Gray and Davis (1980):

- 1874 - Workingman's Institute founded at Johns Hopkins University.
- 1901 - American Federation of Labor denies requested endorsement for a proposed Ruskin College in the United States to be modeled on the Ruskin College for workers in England.
- 1906 - The Rand School of Social Science is formed in New York City by the Socialist Party with aim of providing broad education for basic social change.
- 1917 and 1919 - International Ladies Garment Workers Union (ILGWU) and Amalgamated Clothing Workers Association (ACWA) establish education departments.
- - Women's Trade Union League founded, in large part to educate women for their roles as citizens and trade union members.
- 1921 - A turning point year for the respectability for worker education and the direct involvement of colleges and universities

with labor: the University of California expanded its extension program to include a program specifically geared for workers; the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers in Industry opened its doors to one hundred workingclass women; and Brookwood Labor College initiated its two-year resident program at Katonah, New York. The Workers Education Bureau of America (WEB) was formed in New York City in 1921 for the purpose of coordinating workers' education services conducted under trade union auspices.

Through the decade similar programs, all conducted during summer months, were established at campuses including Harvard, Tufts, Amherst, Barnard College, the University of Wisconsin, and the Southern Summer School which was held at various college campuses throughout the South during its twenty-five year existence.

- 1923 - A standing committee on workers' education was created within the National University Extension Association.
- 1927 - The summer schools of Bryn Mawr, Barnard, and Wisconsin joined together to form the Affiliated Summer Schools for Women Workers in Industry to coordinate recruitment and fund raising efforts.

These early efforts, while creating the basis for subsequent dialogue between the two sectors, were severaly undermined by the Great Depression, which forced the closing of many of the independent "labor colleges." Moreover the relationship between the mainstream labor organizations and most of these programs had never been easy. Most universities were explicit in their policies of reaching out to all workers, organized or unorganized. The labor movement itself, keeping its distance from any program touched by socialism or radicalism, concentrated on organizing and bread and butter issues. The colleges recruited their students of individuals through churches and YWCAs rather than through unions themselves. Programs run by the ILGWU, the ACWA, and a few other unions were open only to union members.

While the Depression all but ended one era in labor-higher education relations, the New Deal helped to create another. By legitimizing the labor movement, the National Labor Relations Act stimulated the organization of the mass production industries and created an immediate demand for utilitarian education essential for the new collective bargaining, organizing, litigation, public speaking, and legislative responsibilities of labor leaders. Education departments were created in most industrial unions, spurred by the rise of the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Also, the federal Works Progress Administration created a workers' education program which hired unemployed teachers and reached one million workers from 1933 to 1943. In the 1940s many state universities established worker education programs modelled on those in Wisconsin and California.

The period from 1929, when the AFL gained greater control over the activities of the Workers Education Bureau, to 1954 when the Bureau was officially absorbed as the education department of the AFL, marked the institutionalization of organized labor's interest in the function of education and the gradual building of systematic relationships with higher education.

The Inter-University Labor Education Committee, active from 1951 to 1956, and its successor, the National Institute of Labor Education, demonstrated that "given the proper care, professional competency, and general cooperation, labor and non-labor agencies could work together to mutual advantage in the field of labor education" (Dwyer, 1977).

The main objective of labor education in the Depression and post-War periods was utilitarian aid to labor leaders. But the continuing interest in liberal education survived through such programs as UCLA's Liberal Arts for Labor Program, the University of Chicago's labor leadership series, the University of Indiana's summer residential school for the United Steelworkers, and Rutgers' Union Leadership Academy.

Not until the mid-1960s do degree-granting programs of labor studies first appear. This was a sign of the growing professionalization of labor union staff and of the growing interest of a new generation of college students to seek careers as union leaders. Schools of industrial and labor relations, which had generally proven to be sources of talent for corporation personnel departments, also began to reorient their programs to include a labor perspective.

In 1965 the University of Massachusetts offered the nation's first master's degree in labor studies. In 1967 Rutgers University initiated its evening college Bachelor of Arts degree with a major in labor studies. In the late 1960s and early 1970s the UAW worked with community colleges in seven states to establish associate degree programs. By 1976 a survey by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges revealed at least 100 colleges with cooperative programs with area labor unions (Abbott, 1977).

In recent years, organized labor has put a priority on increasing educational opportunities for workers. Through collective bargaining, cooperation with colleges and universities, and their own educational departments, unions have supported the higher education of workers through financial subsidies and program delivery.

Charner (1980b) lists seven categories of present union subsidies and programs in higher education for workers:

• Tuition advancement/ reimbursement: plan pays all or part of tuition and related costs for enrollment in schools and colleges outside of the company	United Auto Workers/American Motors: reimbursement of tuition, registration, and laboratory fees; $900 maximum annually for college courses; 100 percent reimbursement for a grade of "D" or better; job-, career-, or degree-related courses are acceptable
• Loans/scholarships: program provides financial grants to workers for educational and training expenses; loans are required to be repaid but not scholarships	Amalgamated Transit Workers/ Greyhound Lines: scholarships for job-related courses; pays for tuition, transportation, and meals International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers/Wagner Electronics: loans for tuition and registration up to $150 per semester

• Educational leave of absence	Union of North American Flint Glass Workers/Corning Glassworks: up to three years leave of absence; pension rights maintained; seniority accrued; courses job- or career-related
• Training funds: company contributes a fixed amount of money per employee to finance educational and training programs	District Council 37, American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees, AFL-CIO/New York City: contribution of $25 per eligible employee to the Education Fund; course offerings in basic skills, degree-related programs, and career-related programs; flexible course scheduling; minimal expenses to participants; extensive support services; simple admission procedures; administered by a union board of trustees
• Union Labor Studies Centers	George Meany AFL-CIO Labor Studies Center: owned and operated by the AFL-CIO for union members; no tuition for center-sponsored institutes; external bachelor's degree in labor studies through Antioch College; short-term workshops; institutes or short courses
• University labor studies	Rutgers University Labor Education Center: supported by state and federal finances as well as union resources; offers basic program of conferences, short courses, discussions, and classes on effective speaking, labor law, labor history, and union administration; union leadership academy; instruction training; labor intern program; A.A. degree; B.A. degree; master's and Ed.D. degrees
• Cultural programs	District 1199 National Hospital and Health Care Employees Bread and Roses Program: funded from the National Endowment for the Arts, the National Endowment for the Humanities, state cultural agencies, and foundations; lunch-time musical performances; oral history project; Bread and Roses show; concerts; art exhibition

The increasing interest of unions and workers individually in higher education is based largely on need: the need to strengthen the skills and sophistication of union leaders, the need to learn new skills to advance in a career, the need to pursue hobbies and civic interests:

> Union subsidies to workers for higher education can affect the character of organized labor, the quality of the work force, and the higher education system. Their success is dependent on the ability of unions to cooperate with industry and education and to increase the participation of workers in these programs by overcoming the barriers faced by workers and responding to the diverse educational and training needs of workers (Charner, 1980b, p. 276).

Conclusion

The main point of this chapter has been to demonstrate the complexity of values and interests shaping industry-education-labor collaboration in its American context. The second point was to suggest a framework for viewing opportunities for collaboration from the vantage of four functional areas: 1) teaching/learning, 2) flow of human resources, 3) new ideas and products, and 4) strategies for collaboration.

The chapter used higher education rather than elementary and secondary education to demonstrate these two points. This was done because of the far more extensive histories of involvement between the three sectors at the postsecondary level.

Not that interaction has been entirely lacking at the elementary and secondary levels. The histories of Barlow (1976) and Callahan (1962) are clear evidence to the contrary as is the literature of collective bargaining in schools (McDonnell and Pascal, 1979) and the growing literature espousing and describing contemporary collaborative efforts (Fraser et al, 1981). The entire history of career and vocational education is, to some extent, a history of efforts to bring the three sectors (or more typically, two--education and business) together (also see Burt and Lessinger, 1970).

But the larger facts are that despite all the specific examples of contacts and programs, the linkages between industry, labor and education have never been developed to the point where collaboration was self-evident across the entire system of education. Acting in their civic roles, business and, to a far less extent, labor leaders have played major roles in designing and managing the nation's public and private education institutions.

The professionalization of education administration and teaching was the goal toward which the nineteenth and early twentieth century educational reformers had worked, supported by progressive business and labor leaders. The maxim was that "education should be left to the professional educators, whose business it was." Ironically, the achievement of this ambitious goal resulted in a degree of complacency among educators as to the sources of their political and cultural support.

And, as Timpane (1982) has pointed out, "the gratification of the responsible businessman in school politics diminished swiftly" in the face of controversial, litiguous political and social issues of equity, white flight, due process, and unionization that buffetted schools in the 1960s and 1970s. Relatively few years were needed to create distance and disillusionment among the presumptive business "establishment" that had long governed educational policy at the community level.

With all the criticisms of institutional isolation aimed in recent years at schools and colleges, one is hard pressed to recall that this so-called isolation has never been complete, was itself a solution to the narrow partisanship of local governance a century ago, and was essential for the successful professionalization of teaching and school administration. Today, schooling is a mature industry. Its internal mechanisms for self-renewal have achieved much but have also reached limits of systematic impact. This coming decade of more frequent and hopefully more imaginative relationships between schools and society tests the presumption that the profession of education is prepared to exercise its own share of responsible leadership in working with other sectors.

The significance of the present moment in the relationships between American education, employers, labor organizations, and government can be summarized as a moment of three crucial tests:

- testing the strength of a new consensus regarding the presumed importance of youth socialization and skill development as critical to the future direction of all American social institutions and to the future successes of individuals.
- testing the incipient consensus that the responsibility for the education-socialization process must be shared through a new set of multi-institutional relationships.
- testing whether the leadership of America's education system is sufficiently mature, professional, knowledgeable, and independent to exercise public leadership which, while welcoming collaboration with other sectors, will act effectively as protectors and interpreters of the best interests of individual learners.

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CHAPTER III

THE STATUS OF COLLABORATIVE COUNCILS

As is evident from the preceding chapter, the concepts of collaboration and cooperation have produced many practical ideas, each one competing for the attention and commitment of leaders who want to do something to improve the performance of people in their organizations and in their communities.

The remainder of this report focuses on the current status of one of these competing ideas: local collaborative councils. This project conducted the first national census of active local councils, identifying over 150.

The project began with a puzzle. Despite an abundance of governmental, quasi-governmental, and independent groups claiming to improve community and employer participation in education, some community leaders, on their own initiative, have chosen to form local collaborative councils. Why? Why were busy people already concerned about the proliferation of mandated and voluntary advisory councils, committees, and planning groups, ready to devote their time, energy, and resources to yet another group activity? If, from another perspective, the design or approach used in these collaborative councils was more attractive and perhaps more effective than the prevalent modes of contact between community institutions, what could be learned to make these benefits more widely available and applicable?

But before these questions could be answered, some basic facts were needed. How many local and state collaborative councils exist?

Who started them? What are their activities and budgets? How are they organized and staffed? These and other basic descriptive questions had no factual answers in 1979. But for a few moderately publicized examples, little was known about the state of the art of industry-education-labor collaborative councils. Unlike federal or state government programs, there were no centralized offices with lists of local council names and addresses. Unlike some national voluntary organizations, there were no national association headquarters with membership or mailing lists for councils nationwide. Most councils themselves were aware only of a few of the others.

The Numbers of Collaborative Councils

The Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration Project compiled a directory of 157 collaborative council activities.* Of these, 150 were community-level councils, four were state-level councils, and three were state-level programs to develop local councils. In addition to these activities identifiable at the time of the data collection, several other councils or council-supporting activities were known to be in progress. Also, two of the state-level programs were included although tangible evidence of the formation of local councils was imprecise.

The study explicitly sought out indigenous organizations. That is, our mission was to identify councils and council-like activities initiated by the members of the councils themselves. By definition this approach excluded local councils formed in response to federal or state laws mandating citizen participation for education, training, economic development, or similar purposes. Legally mandated councils respond to sets of institutional motives and resources quite different from local initiative. Nonetheless, the study team recognized that these differences in original motives could become inconsequential if the collaborative opportunities provided by a mandated council were recognized by its members. Therefore the directory includes a few examples of mandated local councils whose range of activities and operational styles were consistent with our criteria for identifying collaborative councils (see Chapter I). The point here was to show that under the right local conditions, vocational education and career education advisory committees, Private Industry Councils, Labor-Management Committees, and other mandated or broadly-chartered participatory groups such as economic development districts and employment and training councils can play creative roles in stimulating and actually sponsoring collaborative projects.

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* Gold, G., B. Fraser, M. Elsman, and J. Rankin. Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration: A Directory of Collaborative Councils. Washington, DC: National Institute for Work and Learning, 1981.

Allowing for all these caveats, and allowing too for the fact that a few councils included in our list are known to have disbanded subsequent to our data collection efforts, it remains safe to estimate that during 1981 more than 150 (and probably fewer than 175) indigenous collaborative councils were operational across the nation.

The Locations of Collaborative Councils

The project identified collaborative councils in 31 states, the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico. Two councils recently begun in the Canadian province of Ontario were not included in the directory.

Councils operate in urban, rural, suburban, and state-level settings. The basic concept of a collaborative council seems to be as adaptable to the conditions of dense, complex urban areas as to the greater distances and generally fewer and scattered resources of rural areas.

The breadth of council distribution across the nation is modified by a few special circumstances. In only five states did the project staff locate more than five councils per state: Michigan (31), California (23), New York (20), Massachusetts (12), and Connecticut (11). Other councils were found scattered among communities in the eastern and western thirds of the nation. The deep South and the Great Plains states showed the lowest regional presence of local councils (see Figure 1).

A first glance at a map of council locations might lead one to suspect a correlation between council development and an established industrial base. The earliest councils were created in industrial communities of Ohio, Massachusetts, New York, and California as vehicles for youth and teacher awareness of the free enterprise system and for localized career information assistance to secondary school youth. Also, where statewide networks of councils have been created by private sector of governmental action, those few states have been manufacturing and business centers.

But this apparent correlation may have little significance. Other industrial states have been no more active in council formation than their more rural counterparts. Other states have perceived the same problem of a lack of local and statewide interaction among their education, employment, and human services institutions but emphasized different tacks--such as industry-services programs at community colleges and technical institutes--toward solutions.

Collaborative councils, industry services programs, improved relationships between vocational education and federally-funded employment training programs all are compatible activities. Indeed, communities with strong councils tend also to show strength in these other areas. The point is that multi-sector collaboration is still a relatively new practice receiving increasingly greater emphasis. Gradually the full range of pieces are being put in place. In some communities collaborative councils focusing on relationships between education and work institutions have become key pieces in that mix of activities. But it will take a few more years to reveal which of the present generation of councils survive and to say with confidence whether regional geographic factors are important to understanding the chances for council initiation and survivability.

The history of council development in several states also shows that where one capable person in a leadership position makes a strong personal commitment to the development of collaborative councils, a state can be transformed in a few years into a high level of council activity. This was the case in California where the bulk of the 23 councils are affiliated with the private sector state-level Industry-Education Council of California, in New York where a mid-management state official persistently marketed the idea to vocational educators and local Chambers of Commerce, and in Michigan and Connecticut where higher ranking state officials implemented statewide programs.

Where this state-level leadership has been lacking, council formation has been a very idiosyncratic phenomenon highly dependent on local conditions and the insights of local leaders with very little spillover into additional communities.

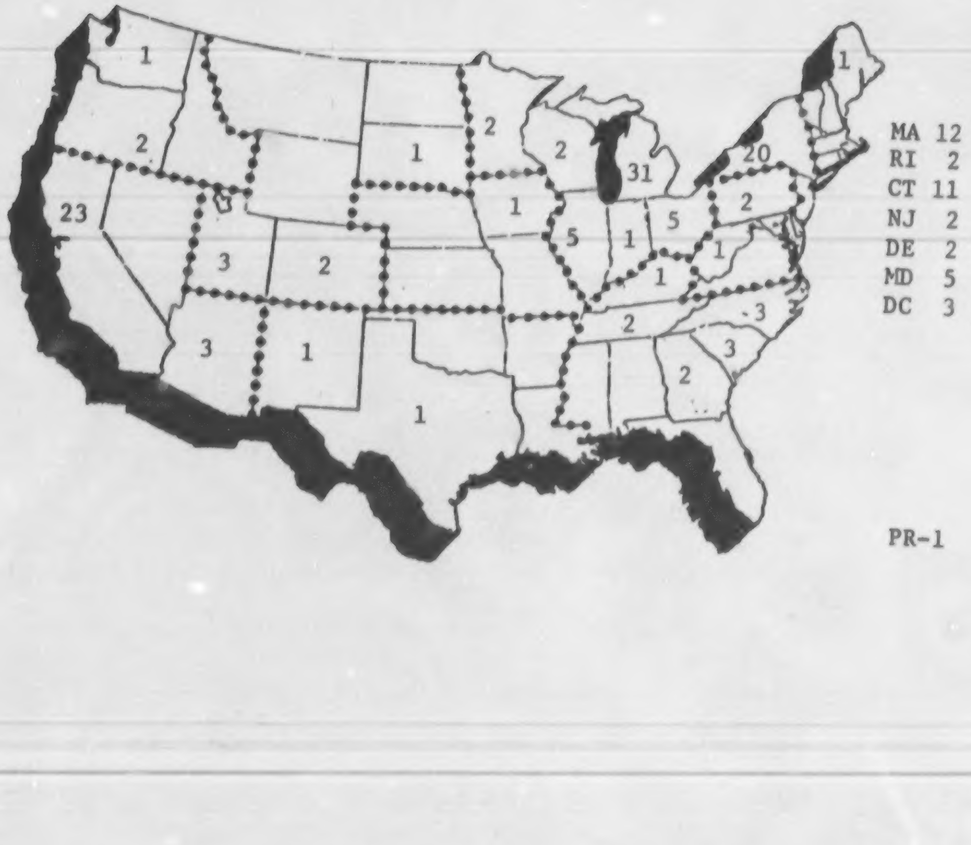
This idiosyncratic nature of council development nationwide could change as collaborative council concepts become more widely recognized and understood and as a "critical mass" of publications and practitioners becomes available as a resource to other communities. On the other side of the ledger is the fact that reduced discretionary resources--both private and public, may inhibit the further spread of collaborative councils.

In sum, during 1981 practicing local collaborative councils operated in most sections of the nation. Policy interest in the concept of such councils was evident in Private Industry Councils created under the Private Sector Initiatives legislation of 1978, in the 1980 recommendations of the Carnegie Commission that collaborative councils be organized in all communities, in the findings of the Carter administration's Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment that multi-sector, community-level collaboration has a crucial impact on youth transitions from school to work, and in the new Reagan administration's creation of a Private Sector Initiatives Task Force. The prospect by late 1981 was for wider dissemination and acceptance of the concepts of collaboration, greater diversity in the ways those concepts were applied across the nation, and a growing probability that collaborative councils would continue to receive popular consideration.

Figure III-1

Geographic Distribution of

Collaborative Councils



The Eras of Collaborative Councils

Most councils examined in this study were of relatively recent origin (see Table III-1). Of the 157 local and state council initiatives identified and described by this project, only 36 had been initiated prior to 1975, and only 16 of these prior to 1970. While having precedents back to 1947, the collaborative council "movement" started as a phenomenon of the late 1970's.

The earliest still operational collaborative councils identified by the project were organized in Youngstown, Ohio (1947), Detroit, Michigan (1951), and San Diego, California (1954). Then, in 1960, five councils were organized, three in California, one in Arizona, and one in New York.

All of these early councils, and a few others organized in the early 1960's, grew from a common set of perceived problems and assumed solutions. As expressed in the literature of Youngstown's Industrial Information Institute, Inc., the consistent purpose of its programs over the years has been:

> ...to make clear to the public, and to employees of industry and business, how everyone in the...area makes his living--and, in the process, to point out that prosperity comes only from the continuous production of goods and services wanted all over the world. The people in the...area--especially the younger people--are also helped to recognize the job opportunities right here at home. Widespread misconceptions about industrial ownership and profits are corrected.*

That vision, with the economic education as its central idea and young people as its central target group, has motivated the formation of many councils since the earliest group. For many business executives

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* Industrial Information Institute, Inc. A Four-County Center For Economic Education Through Industry-Schools Cooperation. Pamphlet. Youngstown, Ohio: Author, n.d.

TABLE III-1

Periods of Council Formation

Years	Councils Formed and Still Operating in 1981
1947 - 1959	3
1960 - 1969	13
1970 - 1979	120
(1970 - 1974)	(19)
(1975 - 1979)	(101)
1980 - 1981	19
TOTAL REVIEWED	155 councils

especially, this concern for the knowledge and attitudes young people have about economic institutions and their own work settings remains a key factor in their desire to participate in councils. A rough estimate might be that this motivation accounts for the initiation of about one-third of the 150 local councils examined by this project and may be considered a major part of the self-identities and activities of all collaborative councils.

In the late 1960's another group of collaborative councils, and another motivating factor for national interest in collaborative councils, received impetus from the urban civil rights movement and the sense of urban frustration with work and schooling institutions. The urban riots of 1967 led to the formation of collaborative councils in many cities. From these councils came the leadership for the National Urban Coalition which itself sought to stimulate the formation of more councils of business and other community leaders. The broad aim of these councils has been to work with minority neighborhood organizations to improve those neighborhoods through social and economic action, in which education, training, and work experience have been important factors.

The earliest of these groups, New Detroit, was formed in 1967 and incorporated in 1968. As a voluntary association it drew on the top "blue ribbon" leadership from private employers, labor unions, government, education, and community service organizations. Like the New Oakland Committee formed in 1970 in Oakland, California, New Detroit has been able to identify minority improvement efforts with community improvement efforts because of the demographic shifts that have left major white-managed corporations operating in a community where racial "minorities" are in fact the political majority.* Under these conditions, the collaborative council format proved a powerful mechanism for displaying the sharing of power and the determination to make inter-racial decision-making work.

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* In some smaller urban communities groups of employers formed Merit Employer Councils intended to assist minority youth to find jobs. Not multi-sector in design, these councils were absorbed in most cases into the emerging "metro" offices of the National Alliance of Business.

New Detroit today describes its *modus operandi* as a set of four strategies:

- As an *advocate*, the urban coalition has adopted both popular and unpopular positions on behalf of necessary social and economic change.
- As a *precept/example*, New Detroit, by its own actions, and by individual actions of its trustees, has encouraged new patterns of social and economic and political relationships, and more positive inter-group relations and attitudes.
- As a *catalyst*, New Detroit has worked to make existing institutions more responsive to the needs of minority groups and to stimulate and encourage the creation of new institutions where none existed to meet identified needs.
- As a *provider of resources*, New Detroit serves as a source of knowledge and limited funding, providing "seed" money to assist community, organizational, and governmental efforts to improve conditions in the Detroit area. New Detroit's resources include the experience, expertise and influence of its board and committee members.*

Even in communities where racial and social justice issues were not salient factors in political or economic planning, these concepts were influential in helping leaders to analyze and select preferred roles for collaborative councils.

During the mid to late 1970's a third generation of local collaborative councils emerged. Some of these councils were nearly identical in operating style and purposes to the early councils of the post-World War II and post-Sputnik eras. Others borrowed their concern for the economic integration of younger generations from that earlier model, their concern for equal opportunity from the 1960's and added these to growing national concern for youth unemployment career awareness and the institutional barriers affection the transitions of all youths from school to work and adulthood.

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* New Detroit. *New Detroit, Inc.: A Decade of Progress 1967-1977*. Detroit, MI: Author, n.d., p. 3.

For example, the 1977 incorporation papers of the Work-Education Council of Southeastern Michigan state that the purpose of the non-profit corporation is:

> to bring together representatives from education, business, industry, government and labor to serve as an effective force in the development and implementation of programs which will serve to facilitate the transition of our youth from school to the world of work.*

This council focused its efforts on both "process" and "product" to ensure that "our youth will (1) leave the school system as potentially employable, and (2) possess a rational basis for making career decisions."** During its first year, the Council conducted an "Employability Characteristics Survey" of area employers, developed a consortium of school systems for local implementation of the Michigan Occupational Information System, brokering arrangements for an automobile dealers' apprenticeship program with a local community college and the state employment service, co-sponsored an in-school "Project Business" and "Project Labor," assisted the public schools in establishing adult literacy programs at industrial sites, and conducted workshops to train teachers and counselors to make better use of community resources.

While the local councils had grown sporadically here and there prior to this time, the late 1970's showed some evidence, for the first time, of a national collaborative council "movement." Almost 80% of the councils reviewed by this project date from this third era of council formation. Yet, because of their complex mixed heritage, they are less readily categorized.* One sign of this atmosphere was the absorption of many of the concepts of collaboration into national legislation creating in 1978 a nationwide network of Private Industry Councils to test the feasibility of local private sector control over the uses of public sector job training funds. Another sign was the use of those same concepts in the Career Education Incentive Act of 1977.

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* Work-Education Council of Southeastern Michigan. Restated Articles of Incorporation, filed February 23, 1977.

** Work-Education Council of Southeastern Michigan. Report for the Work-Education Consortium Project, June 15, 1978.

The earliest group of councils looked entirely for changes in school curricula as a means of providing young people with more information about and contacts with industry and business. Revisions in teacher training, curriculum development, and guidance flowed from the central concern. The barriers to a better fit between school and business interests, in other words, could be found inside the schools. Nor were there reasons to include organized labor or local government in these conversations and activities.

Most--not all—of the later generation of councils still concentrate their energies primarily on changes in the behaviors of school personnel. But to the extent that they also seek to remove barriers to the smooth flow of individuals from education to work, these newer councils are seeking changes in the ways that employers as well as educators deal with the learning needs of young people and adults. Almost all of the third era of councils tend to focus on system-wide issues rather than on problems affecting minorities. But if equity issues are not prominently displaced as the central mission of these councils, a concern for those issues appears to have been infused into council agendas in that emphasis frequently is placed on services to the non-college bound student, or in extending career information and guidance services to all students.

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* Of the 155 councils, 101 were formed during 1975-1979. Another 19 were formed during 1980-1981. See Table 1.

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There can be found among these newer councils at times, a subtle yet significant shift in emphases which has its effect on the kinds of agendas councils take on. The shift from looking only at school curricula and student awareness to analysis of community wide resources and responsibilities implies a shift from an attitude of fitting the youth to employer expectations to an attitude of finding a proper fit between employer needs, individual needs and community-wide needs. Within this more complex sense of resources and motivations for improving the preparation of youth for work and citizenship, local government, labor unions, and community service agencies have a larger role to play.

The Types of Collaborative Councils

Industry-education-labor collaboration takes many forms. Diversity is to be expected in a stiuation where independent organizations act on their own definitions of needs and solutions and do so within constraints of their own abilities to generate resources. Even where state governments or a national foundation or government agency have provided modest financial support, the differences between councils have been more apparent than the similarities. No central funding agency--private or public--lays down detailed guidelines for councils to follow.

Creating effective linkages among business, labor, and education institutions must start with a felt need to solve an important problem. Because communities are different in economic base, demographics, politics, historic ways of doing things, and leadership styles, definitions of key problems usually differ.

More crucially, even when roughly the same problem appears from place to place--the employability of youth, for example--the responses will vary significantly.

While the specific activities of councils vary from place to place, the rough similarities of their missions, their organizational structure, and their decision-making processes do impact on council agendas to produce certain categories of projects.

To understand the significance of these categories, and to understand why councils tend to concentrate their energies in these areas, one must first understand more about the types of local collaborative councils. From hundreds of examples of councils in action emerge three distinct organizational roles, or styles, used by councils to establish themselves in their communities.

Some councils emphasize the service provider style, developing a specific set of services which other community organizations participate in and support. Some councils emphasize the facilitator/broker style, assisting community leaders and organizations to identify common problems and launch collaborative attacks on those problems. A third style is that of the special projects council, designing and initially operating projects to demonstrate collaborative problem-solving, or conducting one-time fact-finding and analysis projects most appropriately performed by a credible organization with multi-sector sponsorship.

Few councils are all one type or the other. Most combine elements of two or three of these styles, consequently performing several valuable roles in their communities. Each style has its own advantages and disadvantages.

Service Provider Councils. Service provider councils tend to become deeply involved in curriculum, teacher training, and career information for students. In rural Michigan and rural Illinois small school districts are hard-pressed to provide the staff, time, and materials needed for an effective career development program. The Mid-Michigan Community Action Council in Alma, Michigan, and the Tri-County Industry-Education-Labor Council in East Peoria, Illinois, both act as organizers of career fairs, career days, classroom speakers, shadowing and internship activities, and many other special activities bringing working adults from a full range of occupations and skills into contact with elementary and secondary school students. Upon this base of trusted, high quality direct services, each council also responds to other requests for assistance: college students seeking unpaid work experience, CETA programs seeking career guidance information to inform students about requirements for entry into apprenticeship programs, employers wanting to educate teachers about the career options open to students, and students seeking part-time jobs.

In these two cases, and with many urban and suburban councils such as the Arizona Business-Industry-Education Council in Phoenix; the

Niagara Frontier Industry-Education Council in Lancaster, New York; the Industry Information Institute in Youngstown, Ohio; or the Institute for Public Affairs Research (IPAR) in Portland, Oregon, council members set themselves to the task of creating an organization whose identity is closely tied to a specific set of career information services.

Facilitator/Broker Councils. In some communities so many education-work activities are underway that a new service provider would only duplicate an existing service or reduce the ability of an existing organization to respond effectively to a newly seen need. Rhode Island, for example, is small, almost a city state, with a great diversity of concerned employers, unions, education institutions, and community service agencies. But no one had ever sorted out who was doing what in the area of employment and vocational training. The need for this information was identified at the policy level by the Education and Training Committee of the Governor's Partnership of Business, Labor, and Government, a blue-ribbon collaborative council. At the programmatic level, a series of meetings and information exchanges was initiated by a "neutral" convenor, the Rhode Island Industry-Education-Labor Council. Actual staff work was performed by some of the Council's member agencies: Rhode Island College and the State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee, with funding from the state CETA office. A digest of programs throughout the state and related information formed the data base for a string of collaborative projects and policy initiatives across the state.

The value of the low-visibility neutral council is rarely appreciated in a community, except by those institutional leaders who witness time and time again no other group seems to be able to generate the same level of cooperation and creativity.

Special Project Councils. The politics of desegregation in Boston have compounded the underlying problems of an urban school system. Large employers initiated the Tri-Lateral Council for Quality Education to demonstrate support for the public schools, to set up partnerships between specific schools and companies, and to provide students with at least glimpses of the world beyond their urban villages. The Council was asked by the school superintendent to organize and staff all vocational advisory councils for a city-wide skills center. For almost two years the Council received federal CETA monies to operate a national demonstration project to improve the employability skills of in-school youth.

In other large cities like Baltimore, Memphis, Seattle, Atlanta, Dallas, Chicago, and New York, and in smaller cities like Oakland, California; Lexington, Kentucky; Sioux Falls, South Dakota; Charleston, South Carolina; Corning, New York; and Worcester, Massachusetts , council organizers recognize that their efforts only begin to counteract the ingrained habits of institutional isolation. A council's combination of very modest financial resources and very significant leadership can sometimes achieve striking success by demonstrating what can be done by influencing how other, more permanent resources are spent. For example, several urban councils have played key roles in reviewing the administrative practices of their city school systems (always at the invitation of the superintendent) and making recommendations for modernization of accounting and transportation systems, personnel practices and central office organization. Typically this sensitive work is done with very little public visibility and little or no financial expenditure.

The Activities of Collaborative Councils

Some sense of the range of council activities is revealed in the preceding examples. That range, when itemized in detail shows impressive variety and substance. Initiatives include:

- Fact-finding

  Inventories of education, career guidance, skill training, community service, and work experience opportunities
  Assessments of community perceptions of pressing education and training issues
  Needs assessments on specific issues identified by employers, educators, unions, and others
  Reviews and clarification of child labor laws
  Surveys of adult needs and resources for education and training
  Employment forecasts based on local employer estimates and Employment Service analysis
  Follow-up surveys of high school, vocational school, and community college graduates, and those who complete employment and training programs

- Analysis and problem-solving

  Economic development seminars
  Brainstorming among area job placement and career counseling professionals
  Improvement of vocational education and job training programs
  Studies of uses of local vocational education advisory committees
  School desegregation planning
  Business, education, labor dialogs
  Assessments of school and college connections with apprenticeship and pre-apprenticeship programs
  Labor-management-education consulting teams to review community resources for custom training for incoming industries or job upgrading for adults

- Information networking

  Information, referral, and brokering services for: employment internship, and service opportunities; cooperative education and work-study programs; plant tours; job shadowing; classroom speaking; and tutoring

"Who's doing what" directories

Newsletters

Workshops and seminars

Proposal development assistance for collaborative projects

Recruiting members for school and college vocational and career education advisory committees

Training in education-work "brokering"

- Demonstration projects or direct services

  Career exploration opportunities
  Work- and service-experience programs
  Career guidance workshops for teachers and counselors
  Development of Private Industry Councils and assistance to operational PICs
  Cooperative vocational education, internship, and work-study placements with employers
  Community resource clearinghouses
  Summer or temporary jobs programs
  Career Days, Career Fairs, and mini-Career Days
  Assistance to magnet schools
  Adopt-a-School programs
  Mini-grant awards to teachers with creative ideas
  Programs for high school dropouts and juvenile offenders
  Teacher training and developing of career education materials
  Youth motivation seminars
  Career Exchange Days
  Economic education packages

What do councils not do? Councils generally avoid direct responsibility for operating education and training programs, although they may be the catalyst for and designer or broker of such programs. Schools, colleges, technical institutes, community-based service agencies, unions, and employers are better equipped to supply these programs. Councils also generally avoid direct responsibility for operating economic development and job creation programs, although they may be the catalysts for such programs, especially for consideration of human resource factors in local economic development planning. Private sector economic development councils, elected officials, state and local government agencies, and business groups such as the Chambers of Commerce and local Manufacturers Associations are better equipped to manage the investment, real estate, marketing, and tax incentive aspects of economic development. Similarly, councils tend to avoid direct responsibility for job placement. Private and public sector placement services already have this responsibility. In sum, councils tend to avoid both in practice and in their goals any competition with or duplication of existing services.

But if the range of options for councils remains large, the modal interests and activities of the more than 150 councils studied do tend to cluster in recognizable patterns.

Council activities can be divided into three basic functional types and numerous sub-categories. The three functional types are: 1) organizational activities, 2) community relations activities, and 3) substantive agenda activities.*

Organizational activities are those familiar to any group of people seeking to formalize a set of relationships. Such activities include decisions to form an organization, to have a membership, meetings, budget, staff, and, most importantly, to have a statement of purposes with a reasonable strategy to implement those purposes.

Community relations activities are derived from the special role of the collaborative council as an intermediary leadership organization, including: serving as a catalyst for issue identification and discussion; assisting members and non-member organizations to carry out activities congruent with the council's mission; and exercising leadership within the community through council-initiated research, analysis, networking, and advocacy.

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* This functional division was first identified by Steven M. Jung in Evaluating the Work-Education Consortium Project: An Overview of Issues and Options. Washington, DC: National Manpower Institute, July 1977.

Substantive agenda activities are usually identified explicitly as council projects providing information and other services to the community. The dozens of diverse projects initiated by councils may be categorized either by the type of client or direct beneficiary (e.g. students, teachers, school/college administrators, employers, unions, government agencies, or community service organizations), by the methods of the activity (e.g. research/data gathering, information dissemination, skill training, program planning and development), or by the content of the activity (e.g. career information and counseling, employability assessments, community resources clearinghouses, career exploration experiences, vocational training and so forth).

As a broadbrush summary, activities among the 150 councils reviewed by this project can be characterized as benefiting teachers and students, using information dissemination and program development methods, and emphasizing a content of career awareness and exploration.

Based on the self-reports from councils identified by this project, the two most popular activities of local councils were information workshops for teachers (52 councils reported this activity) and providing speakers to elementary and secondary school classrooms (45 councils)(See Table III-2). Other frequently cited activities included:

- community forums (35)
- clearinghouse/community resource directory (36)
- sponsoring school career days and career fairs (35)

- sponsoring job fairs and job placement programs (34)
- assisting with school and non-school program planning, including CETA-school programs as well as private sector-school programs (35)
- Organizing and coordinating selected career guidance services including uses of state occupational information systems at the community level (33)

To summarize: by far the most prevalent topics of interest to collaborative councils active in 1980-1981 were career orientation, career awareness, and career information services for in-school youth and their teachers and counselors.

Other council projects point toward the larger range of contributions which councils can provide to their communities: employability needs assessments (17 councils), community resource inventories for career education and counseling (15), follow up studies of high school graduates (5), internship programs (9), improving career services to handicapped and other special needs youth (14), providing management consulting assistance to local school systems (6), or developing projects assisting adults with their education and training needs (14).

Councils with no staff and limited budgets tend to restrict themselves to modest agendas consisting of awards banquets and providing speakers for school classroom visits. For an entirely volunteer council, just organizing an annual career fair can be a major undertaking. A visible event such as a career fair, however, puts a local council "on the map" among local service groups and may satisfy the participants with a sense of accomplishment.

Other councils start with more ambitious purposes, or may develop more meaningful missions from modest starting points. Such councils are

Table III-2

Frequency of Most Common Council Projects by 154 Councils*

In-service teacher workshops on career development topics	52
Career speakers in classrooms	45
Community resource clearinghouse and/or directory	36
Career days and career fairs	35
Coordination of school and non-school programs (especially school and local government youth training programs)	35
Job fair and/or job placement assistance for youths	34
Improving career counseling and information services	33
Site visits for students to employers	29
Improving vocational education programs	27
Shadowing programs for students at work site	22
Public relations on career-related topics	22
Establishing school-business partnerships and adopt-a-school programs	18
Site visits for teachers to employers	17
Needs assessments	17
Curriculum development	16
Economic education	16
Inventory community resources	15
Newsletter	14
Assisting special needs youth	14
Developing programs for adults	14

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* Data were categorized by project staff based on descriptions of council projects submitted by local council staff. This table is approximate in its ranking because of incompleteness and only rough comparability of data. The rough proportions, however, are entirely consistent with all other evidence gathered by case studies and more informal inquiries.

more aggressive in defining community needs, designing projects, and seeking out financial and staff support. For a detailed discussion of this project's lessons learned from our review of successful councils, readers are referred to another project publication: Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration: An Action Guide for Collaborative Councils.

The Funding of Collaborative Councils

One would expect a positive relationship between the scale of council budgets and the number and impact of their activities. Perhaps more funds on hand, the more active is the council. Or, from another perspective, the more active and serious the council, the more likely it is that larger cash resources will be produced.

Initial analysis indicates that both suppositions have some validity. The several CETA Private Industry Councils included in our Directory and the twenty-three councils created in Michigan under that state's Interagency Collaborative Initiative simply would not have existed without the stimulus of federal and state government funds. The same would probably be true for most of the councils which participated in the Work-Education Consortium Project, a federally-funded project designed to demonstrate the feasibility of local collaborative action councils.

On the other hand even these councils owe something--all in some cases--of their financial survival to personal resourcefulness and creative thinking. Sufficient examples prove that money is not a necessary prerequisite to substantial action. But councils which are creative and whose concerns are large do tend to have greater resources than those with smaller, more routine agendas.

How much money does a council need? There is no clear answer. Too much depends on highly variable factors such as the level and quality of volunteer leadership. If staffowrk is contributed in-kind by the member institutions, a council can go far without a formal budget of its own.

Staffwork is the key factor and the reason why most of the more ambitious councils develop at least a core budget to hire committed, competent staff. In few areas of the country is it possible to have a core staff for less than $25,000 per year. Most councils which stress the facilitator/broker role have annual budgets of $25,000 to $50,000. Service delivery and special projects councils tend to have larger budgets. Councils with budgets under $10,000 per year either settle into modest, even innocuous, routines or are exceptionally strong councils with diverse leadership and the ability to influence major contributions of in-kind support, or are in a few cases, low visibility planning groups that coordinate decisions about how to deliver career development resources available. Table III-3 (Budgets of Local Councils) shows a distribution based on the reported 1980 budgets of 153 councils. Because the councils themselves are so diverse, the main point of the table is to reinforce that sense of diversity. Expectations of performance from a council with $2,000 in hand will be quite different than for a council whose budget is $200,000. Always impressive, of course, are those people and councils who, using the council mechanism for leverage, are able to generate impressive results out or proportion to cash on hand.

Table III-3

Budgets of Local Councils*

Cash budget	Councils	Percent
0 - $2,000	35	22.9
$2,000 - $10,000	7	4.6
$10,000 - $25,000	17	11.1
$25,000 - $50,000	27	17.6
$50,000 - $100,000	31	20.3
$100,000 - $200,000	12	7.8
Above $200,000	24	15.7
	153	100%

* Does not include cash value of in-kind contributions or volunteer effort.

We were unable to obtain full information regarding the sources of council funds. However the partial information available clearly points to a heavy dependence upon public tax dollars. This is especially true for the more costly projects and services operated by over one-third of the councils. Federal government training, career education, and vocational education funds have been crucial to the initiation and continuation of local councils.

Rarely are these monies received directly from the federal government. Federal funds are channelled through state and local government agencies (school systems, local CETA Prime Sponsors, State departments of education and labor, and state employment and training councils for the most part).

Local and national foundations have supported specific council projects from time to time. No examples were reported, however, of foundation support for core council operations. On the other hand, a few councils with foundation funding for projects lasting several years have survived in large part because of these projects.

Corporate and other employer financial support of councils has been modest, with a few exceptions, while corporate in-kind volunteer support often has acoounted for a generous portion of council activities. Only a handful of councils with paid staff appear to rely on local private sector donations. Those that are funded entirely from the private sector, such as councils in Youngstown, Ohio, and Phoenix, Arizona, tend to have budgets of under $50,000 annually. But again this does not include management and staff time.

Interviews with council directors and business members repeatedly encountered the rationale that local schools and other public sector human services agencies should provide catalytic funds for staff and projects as the foundation for corporate voluntarism and activism in support of education and training programs. Even among the no-budget/ low budget councils, the general expectation was that core staff would be provided in-kind by the public agencies. In a few instances, local Chambers of Commerce, or their equivalents, supplied staff support staff if all other funding strategies failed.

Few councils reported receiving funds from labor unions. Those that did had a membership dues structure. With some notable exceptions, labor unions have been much less active than business in their participation on councils, with a consequent impact on the levels of in-kind as well as cash support.

It should be evident from this summary analysis that the financial lives of local and state collaborative councils are not only very varied but also very insecure. Reductions in the sources and size of federal and state government funds can be expected to reduce both the operations of existing councils and the feasibility of initiating new councils. But the very modesty of most council budgets may carry a favorable implication: that as community leaders recognize the need to act collaboratively on local problem-solving the expense of supporting the core functions of a council will be recognized as legitimate, manageable, and necessary expenses.

Organization of Collaborative Councils

With some notable exceptions, discussed briefly later in this section, the organizational structure of local and state collaborative councils is relatively similar. The basic structural components are: members, committees, staff, and organizational status. Almost all councils have designated officers and committees. About two-thirds have paid staff. Less than half were incorporated as tax-exempt, non-profit corporations.

A core group of well-motivated individuals identify and recruit other individuals whose participation is thought to be essential to the council's local credibility and operational success. This larger group, numbering somewhere between twelve and thirty members (twenty to twenty-five seems most typical) constitutes the council.

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Members: All members will have a "rough" sense of organizational purpose and the key organizers may or may not have a relatively clear concept of the activities they think the council should pursue. In the more cohesive councils, the informal discussions preceding the first meeting will have been used to clarify mission, appropriate membership, intended outcomes, possible activities, and opportunities for resources.

Specialization of functions is almost a first step. Officers are elected and, if the purposes of the council are reasonably clear from the start, various ad hoc and standing committees are established to work on membership, finance, program, and perhaps specific projects.

Members participate voluntarily. They are not paid to be involved although, preferably, their involvement is an appropriate function of their job responsibilities with their respective organizations. It can be said of many councils that institutions are the voluntary members and the individuals are representatives of the member institutions. But this distinction is at best fuzzy because few organizations make formal policy decisions to assign members to local councils. Consequently, most councils operate with the important ambiguity of having members who represent their organizations in a general sense but who may not be able to speak for those organizations in specific cases. Before the council itself can commit itself to particular actions, the commitments of key organizations must be put into place. If the council participants are relatively high in the managerial hierarchy of their own organizations, or if the proposed activities are non-controversial or inexpensive, gaining these commitments need not be a complex task.

Committees: Few collaborative councils could operate effectively without a committee structure. Formal and informal committees are the meeting grounds where the essential contact-making, agenda-building, and task-planning work of a council gets done. The type of committee structure used is a function of the type of council. Service provider councils with regular activities (such as inservice workshops for teachers or career fairs for students or community resource clearinghouses) tend to have standing committees to assure interagency cooperation and monitor task performance.

Facilitator/broker councils tend to rely more on special purpose task forces for data gathering, on informal committees for project planning, or on even more informal conversations suited to solve the specific problems of specific organizations. Facilitator/broker councils rely heavily on the skill of a chairperson or executive director to identify needs informally and put the right people in touch with each other at the right times.

Special project councils tend to rely heavily on ad hoc committees once the council as a whole has developed its agenda and selected a project for implementation.

Most councils appear to limit the number of official members or, if they accept unlimited members, to create a board of directors equivalent to a core council. But many councils do not limit participation on project committees or task forces to council members. Broadening committee participation to include individuals with special interests and abilities is a particularly effective technique for getting the job done and increasing a council's credibility in a community.

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Staff: Of the 154 councils reviewed, 112 had paid staff. Additional councils had a staff coordinator provided on an in-kind basis, typically by a school system, Chamber of Commerce, or college. In only about twenty cases was all council business conducted by the members themselves.

The presence of staff, paid or unpaid seems to be crucial to most councils as a way of maintaining the momentum of ideas and actions. Most councils without staff and therefore totally dependent on volunteer time were in fact notable for the limited range and scope of their activities. Unstaffed councils tended to be restricted to such activities as monthly luncheon meetings, annual awards banquets, and sponsorship of career awareness programs actually coordinated by school personnel.

A few notable exceptions demonstrate, however, that neither staff nor funds are essential to larger impact. A few councils operating as discussion groups for top school officials, chief executive officers and occasionally other community leaders serve the singular purpose of identifying critical problems and committing energies and resources toward resolving those problems. Such councils need not meet often. Indeed they need not be organized as a formal council, preferring to operate as an "invisible council." To be effective, however, they do need continuity of participation, a shared concern for long-term, community-wide consequences of key problems, and an ability to make institutional commitments that will be acted on by other, lower-ranking members of their respective organizations. In effect, resources and staff action flow from the agreements reached by these members invisible or visible-but-informal councils.

Organizational status: Of the 154 councils analyzed, sixty-eight (or about 45%) were incorporated as non-profit, tax-exempt corporations. The decision to incorporate clearly depends on local circumstances, the principal circumstances being whether the council members can agree on using some existing, already incorporated, organization as the fiscal agent for council expenses and/or as the source of in-kind staff support.

Some councils with very small budgets and no paid staff are incorporated. Some councils with very large budgets and paid staff are not incorporated. The reverse is also true. For councils which are not incorporated, colleges, public school systems, and (less typically) Chambers of Commerce serve as "homes."

There are several advantages to organizing a council as a private, non-profit corporation under Section 501(c)(3) of the Internal Revenue Code. The principal reason for incorporating is to permit the council to receive tax deductible donations and to administer itself any funds received through contracts or grants. Other advantages include cheaper postage rates, limited liability of officers, and certain sales tax exemptions.

There are few disadvantages, the worst being the initial legal paperwork and the annual audit and report. But much of this effort is necessary anyway if only for internal accountability to members and supporters.

Councils that incorporate seem to do so as much for the psychological, political, and administrative sense of independence as for strictly financial reasons. Many councils find that having another organization

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acting as fiscal agent eventually leads to subtle (sometimes overt) restrictions that compromise the council's reputation as a neutral and procedurally flexible organization. Outside fiscal agents, for example, sometimes have charged their normal--but heavy--administrative overhead rates to the modest funds received by the council, or have tried to impose personnel policies on the council, or questioned expenditures. The danger in other words is that a fiscal agent, however well intentioned, may interpose an unnecessary layer of accountability between the council officers and the staff.

On the other side of the incorporation ledger are extraordinarily efficient relationships where the fiscal agent is a prime backer of the council. Here it is likely that the agency treats all budget and personnel administration and even office space as an in-kind contribution to the council and maintains a rigorous "hands-off" policy with regard to all program and personnel activities of the council. As long as the council does not appear to be "owned" by the supporting organization, this relationship can work beautifully. If the sponsor is itself a non-profit organization or government agency, all the benefits of council incorporation can be had on a "pass-through" basis.

Leadership of Collaborative Councils

Although the information received from councils was often superficial on the topic of leadership sources and styles, certain tendencies were clear indeed.

Leadership from business and education organizations clearly dominates most collaborative councils. Put another way, leadership from labor organizations and community-based service agencies is far less common. Local government training agency directors or youth program staff participated on many councils. About one-third of the councils and related initiatives reviewed showed a broad base of institutional involvement (see Table III-4).

The composition of a council's leadership appears to be a function of its origins: the initial sources of leadership, the purposes initially set as its mission, the manner in which its members are recruited and agenda developed. Once a council's identity and pattern of action or inaction are established, dramatic changes of course are difficult. Although members, projects, and activities may have changed over time, few of the councils reviewed by this project showed evidence of having broadened (or narrowed) their formal mission, raised (or lowered) the level of institutional leadership from which members were recruited, restructured the relative leadership balance between staff and members, or sought to take on notably different types of project activities.

In California significant changes resulted in the operation of some of the local affiliates of the Industry Education Council of California (IECC) after the state-level council was reorganized and a new state council executive director appointed. At that point the IECC developed a modus operandi of strengthening local councils by selectively using council communities as sites for IECC projects. In New York City, the collaborative council was initiated as a project of a business leadership organization. The council's work with the public education

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Table III-4

Sectors Most Active in Council Leadership

Sectors	Number of Councils	Percent
Business and Education	80	51%
Broad-based (Three or more sectors; no one dominant)	35	22%
Education and local government training agency	27	17%
Business primarily	7	5%
Education primarily	3	2%
Other	5	3%
TOTAL	157	100%

sector served as one of several precedents for a significant upgrading of the overall business community's involvement in public policy and program developments. The initial council was replaced by the more potent, higher visibility, better funded, and more comprehensive partnership program which followed.

In Michigan, two local collaborative councils with broad-based membership and track records as effective project catalysts served as models for a statewide program initiated jointly by the Michigan Departments of Labor and Education. State support using federal CETA and Vocational Education Act monies carried with it an emphasis on coordination of local vocational and career education programs with CETA Prime Sponsor youth programs. Although employers and unions are represented on what

Michigan calls Interagency Collaborative Boards (ICBs), the leadership and agendas come out of the public sector. This approach has advantages in that it helps put the public sector "act together" first so that a more knowledgeable and unified case for private sector involvement can be made. But the fact remains that the initial definition of the ICBs made a difference.

The presence of business representatives as the leading non-education participants on most councils seems to result from the common sense perceptions that employers are the foremost "users" of school system and college graduates and that employers have more substantial assistance to offer than do the labor or social service sectors insofar as career and economic education information and experiences are concerned. The emphasis that all councils of all types place on the importance of real contact between learners and employer leads inevitably to the conclusion that the lack of linkage between the two sectors of education and employers is the critical problem. The corollary conclusion is that labor, government, and social service sectors, by definition, must play secondary roles.

The result is that labor, social service agency, education, and government leaders do in fact defer to leadership offiered by private sector managers.

But the mere presence of business and industry members, even leadership, does not assure meaningful action. Leadership implies knowing waht is wanted and what is possible from a council. Councils which limit themselves to luncheons, awards and minor forms of assistance to school programs are evidence of leadership that is satisfied with modest results and/or a superficial analysis of the problems facing schools, employers, young people, and communities.

Councils, on the other hand, which define more profound school-employer and youth-career development problems are likely to take on more difficult agendas. Difficulty can be measured in two ways: the difficulty of taking on large and important tasks such as organizing community-wide strategies for providing career development programs or the difficulty of addressing controversial issues such as encouraging in-depth student analysis of the costs and benefits of business or labor positions on environmental or trade policy. The difference is leadership. Thus the ability to attract the right kind of business leaders is probably the single most important decision faced by all councils.

Involving representatives of organized labor is typically a consequence of decisions to involve business. In some communities, educators and business leaders sensitive to the interests of organized labor make sure that labor unions are invited to participate. In these cases organized labor is recognized as a politically influential sector as concerned as anyone else with the quality of education and the quality of career opportunities. More frequently the involvement of organized labor is an afterthought with little expectation of significant activity. In other communities, organized labor is consciously omitted. One council director observed that if unions wanted to put their point of view into the classroom they were free to set up their own council. In contrast, another council director noted that the credibility of his council's program with schools and young people required labor participation as an assurance of balance and accuracy in the information being presented.

Unions, however, face some unique challenges in providing the degree of balance desired by some councils. First, whereas almost every American community has business leaders who are also community leaders, this is hardly the case with labor leaders. Few labor leaders have the financial and staff support needed to free them to participate in diverse activities. Union halls are far more modest environments than corporate offices. A few union leaders cannot cover the same geographic and intellectual territory that can be divided among a much larger cadre of managers from business and industry. Also, unions lack the public relations resources that permit individual businesses and trade associations to publish and distribute curricular materials. Finally, although the educational levels of local labor leaders are rising rapidly, the disparity between management and labor is still wide in most communities, a disparity which puts many local labor leaders at a perceived status disadvantage when discussing education and training issues.

Assessment and Evaluation of Collaborative Councils

Assessment and evaluation are exercises in quality control and accountability. Councils have a number of audiences to whom they may be accountable.

Because collaborative councils are totally dependent for their legitimacy on the active involvement of their members, the staff and members of local councils are most sensitive to the self-assessments made from time to time by themselves as individuals and as colleagues.

A second type of assessment to which local councils are particularly sensitive consists of the articles and discussions which appear from time to time in the local public media. National media attention is good to have but of fleeting importance.

A third type of assessment of special importance involves the opinions and research conclusions of funding agencies. But these agencies may be more interested in the progress of a specific project rather than in the relative significance or success of the council as a whole.

A fourth type of assessment involves the opinions and research conclusions of external third-party evaluators (neither the council nor a funding source, but perhaps sponsored by one or the other). These research efforts and reports typically are produced by well-trained researchers using case study or more formal academic methods. Because they are typically performed by "outsiders," formal evaluations can be the most readily discredited and discounted form of assessment for local activities. They can also be exceptionally insightful and useful.

To date only three comparative assessments or evaluations of local collaborative councils have been conducted. These are:

- The evaluability assessment of five council sites conducted by American Institutes of Research for this project (see Chapter V)
- A review of twelve councils and case studies of four councils conducted by Abt Associates for the National Institute of Education (Prager, Goldberg et al, 1980; Prager et al, 1981)
- A review of thirty councils and case studies of five councils conducted by the National Institute for Work and Learning for the Michigan Interagency Collaborative Initiative and Michigan Department of Labor (National Institute for Work and Learning, 1981)

Other studies of local advisory and collaborative organizations and efforts also shed light on the concepts and practices of collaborative councils (for example, Ferrini, Matthews, Foster, and Workman, 1980). A review of this pre-1981 literature was published by NIWL as part of this project (Fraser, Gold, Rankin et al, 1981). The Mershon Center at Ohio State University is presently responsible for assessing the progress of mandated local Private Industry Councils funded by the federal government.

Assessments and evaluations of industry-education-labor collaborative councils all reach similar conclusions:

- Collaborative councils have succeeded in establishing themselves as legitimate, independent community organizations in contrast to other groups which, although they may share similar interests and even members, are seen as vehicles for state or federal government interests. As credible organizations, councils are generally accepted as effective forums for communication and planning among the education and private sectors.

- Although subject to substantial uncertainties of funding, local councils have succeeded in generating financial support from diverse sources. But because many of these sources have been public sector agencies--local, state, and/or federal--the future funding of local councils remains uncertain.

- Collaborative council interests have been focused on developing community resources for diverse types of youth career development activities. This focus differentiates these councils from the focus of Private Industry Councils, which have become the principal federal government vehicle for encouraging private-public collaboration on training and employment matters. Coordination and joint activities have been developed in some communities between these two types of local councils but not on a systematic basis. Better communication and joint planning needs to take place.

- While many councils do use needs assessment approaches to develop their initial agendas, there is a lack of periodic needs assessment activities once agendas are adopted. Periodic assessments are important in focusing and refocusing council activities on significant issues.

- Few councils emerge in formal assessments of evaluations of the impact of their activities. Almost all councils monitor the satisfaction of participants in major projects, but documentation of follow-up impact is rare. In part this is a function of financial limitations, in part it is typical of community-based organizations who rely on informal feedback, and in part it is a function of the lack of evaluation requirements by funding sources. Activities of most local vocational and career education advisory councils are also unevaluated, so comparisons of actions and impacts are not available.

- Improvements often needed in councils include: greater stability of funding, more attention to developing sequences of activities leading to more significant outcomes, greater attention to breadth of organizations represented in membership, greater attention to involving diverse community leaders in identification or priority issues suitable to industry-education-labor collaboration.

From time to time, usually at the initiative of a particularly conscientious executive director or council president, a council may conduct a self-assessment of its own progress and prospects.

A particularly insightful and well-implemented self-study was conducted in 1979-80 by a committee of the Tri-Lateral Council for Quality Education, Inc., in Boston, Massachusetts. The Council's Statement of Direction reviews the history, mission and objectives, findings of effectiveness, and funding of the Council during its five years, draws conclusions and makes recommendations for future priorities (Tri-Lateral Council for Quality Education, 1980). For example, the Council's major focus had been on developing partnerships between business firms and Boston's eighteen high schools and on a variety of efforts to improve the city's occupational educational system. The self-study reviewed accomplishments and problems of the five years, concluding that greater emphasis was needed to upgrade teacher skills, curriculum and career guidance development, and management assistance. As a result of the self-study, the Council took on the responsibility of playing a more active role in achieving closer collaboration between the schools and manpower planning agencies. This task was feasible because of the high level business and school membership on the Council and the fact that several key business members also were active in developing the Boston Private Industry Council.

An example of a Council-sponsored assessment of a council project is the Industry Education Council of California's report on its Cross-

Agency Project for the Education, Training, and Placement of Handicapped Youth (Lamb, 1981). This report analyzed an "action partnership" program by focusing on the networking design and its implementation. Understanding how to overcome institutional barriers to private-public collaboration directly addressed the replication potential of the project and indirectly assessed the functioning of the IECC.

Setting reasonable goals and expectations is undoubtedly the biggest problem encountered by councils in performing self-assessments or working with outside evaluators (see Bobrow, 1977). The fact is that many factors are far beyond the control of a collaborative council. Yet, the natural tendency of evaluators and the members themselves is to judge council impact by such concrete outcomes as job placements or academic improvements in schools. This tendency occurs because it is harder to put numbers on less tangible but possibly more significant achievements.

Rarely is a council, or even a single council project, responsible for job placements or improved academic performance (even when those do occur). Normally other agencies--themselves council members in many cases--have those responsibilities. A council may choose to facilitate those activities, but many hands and many variables intervene in the final result.

On the other hand, all councils can be held accountable for the extent to which they improve communications and interactions between leaders and organizations. Things should happen because the council was there. Schools, employers, unions, government agencies and others should initiate projects because of the council. Collaborative action should occur regularly. People should feel that they are making progress in working with each other and in improving specific projects and programs. Where evaluations have focused on improvements in the process of interagency collaboration, local councils have justified their existence. Putting a dollar price tag on the value of that achievement has not been easy. The modest budgets of most councils indicate for most observers a favorable benefit/cost ratio.

On the other hand, council advocates must acknowledge that councils thus far have failed--with rare exceptions--to mobilize community-level leadership to use the council mechanism to design and operate comprehensive human resource programs tailored to local economies, labor markets, and educational resources (see Kyle, 1981).

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CHAPTER IV

ON BUILDING NETWORKS OF COLLABORATIVE COUNCILS

In addition to the wide variety of local and state councils and similar mechanisms represented among the 157 collaborative initiatives reviewed by this project and described in A Directory of Collaborative Councils, networking mechanisms related to these councils were also identified. This chapter describes the main characteristics of these linking mechanisms and discusses the chief merits and difficulties of creating networks of councils concerned with industry-education-labor collaboration. This discussion is based largely on many conversations over a two year period with directors and members of councils listed in the Directory and with many other persons in state and national organizations.

The first fact to record is that none of the activities described here represented an effective national network of collaborative councils. The lack of a directory of councils, compounded by the fact that most councils are indigenous in origin and orientation and therefore rarely in contact with national audiences, constituted the principal practical barriers to nationwide networking prior to this project's publication of A Directory of Collaborative Councils.

On the other hand, the basic mechanisms for such networking were in place. Two national and several state groups existing during 1980-81 were acting already as advocates, conference organizers, and sources of technical assistance. With the publication of the Directory in mid-1981, these groups had available the means to make direct contact with all councils nationwide for the first time instead of just the smaller number (approximately half of the 157) generally known to the national organizations earlier.

State networks

Several states had formal council networks in operation during the period of this project. (See Chapter VI for further discussion of the role of state governments in fostering industry-education-labor collaboration.)

The oldest and most highly developed of these was in California where twenty local industry-education councils are affiliated with the state-level Industry Education Council of California (IECC), itself a collaborative council incorporated in 1974. Three other local councils in California operated independently of IECC. In New York State in 1980 a majority of the twenty local councils formed an Association of New York State Industry-Education Councils. In Michigan, a state government-funded Interagency Collaborative Initiative resulted during 1979 and 1980 in the creation of over thirty local councils in addition to four which pre-dated the state initiative. Similar but smaller state government projects in Connecticut (eight councils), Minnesota (two councils), North Carolina (three councils), and South Carolina (three councils) also resulted in state networks at least during the period of the state projects. In Massachusetts during 1977 about eight councils had met intermittently to compare progress but had never sought to formalize or continue their networking.

Several state networks were under development during the period of this study. In Arizona the Arizona Business-Industry-Education Council serving the Phoenix area was working successfully in 1981 to establish local councils in four other sites. A different approach was being taken by the Ohio Department of Education which sought to initiate Vocational/Technical Resource Consortia to work collaboratively with business, industry, and labor in twenty-three regions state-wide. In Colorado, the Colorado Association of Commerce and Industry, the Chamber of Commerce for the state, had been working since 1977 to stimulate local Chambers of Commerce to initiate local Business and Education Councils. Although few council-like groups had been organized, many local Chambers were participating with schools in career education projects. In Indiana, the Governor's Committee on Youth Employment was assisting the business and education leadership of several communities to initiate local collaborative councils.

Anecdotal evidence gathered from individual councils during this project indicates that, with exceptions, contacts among councils within state borders appears to be relatively minor. The exceptions occur at times of annual meetings (as in California, Michigan, and New York) or when a formal newsletter or intermittent communications is used. Geographic proximity is less of an inducement to interactions than is personal rapport among council directors or awareness of a specific council project of interest to another council. In almost all cases, communication among councils, including participation in formal associations or conferences, is initiated by council staff rather than members. In other words, networking seems to support staff morale, knowledge, and skill development needs. Volunteer members perceive little or no need for council networking per se. Of course both staff and members have access to state and national information and contacts through other professional networks.

National networks

Although two associations (described in the next section) claim particular interest in advocating the interests of local collaborative councils, [illegible] be emphasized that council members individually and collectively benefit from their affiliations with many formal and informal professional networks. Thus members representing public schools may bring to council deliberations news, attitudes, and technical resources from a broad range of national organizations serving administrators, teachers, and counselors. Business representatives bring insights provided by their affiliations with Chambers of Commerce, Manufacturers' Associations, and personnel and training associations. Labor officials bring their affiliations with international and state unions. City government and community service agency leaders bring insights from national groups representing their interests.

Moreover, council members may participate on other committees and councils: vocational and career education advisory committees, economic development councils, CETA planning or Private Industry Councils, committees/councils concerned with special issues.

All these activities offer connections to national networks. Some provide linkages to national groups which have demonstrated significant concern for improving education relationships with employers and workers. Groups such as the American Vocational Association, the State Advisory Councils on Vocational Education, the National Association of Private Industry Councils, the National Alliance of Business, and the federal government's advisory councils on career and vocational education have all supported more effective linkages through formal, local council-like mechanisms.

At the community level or state level, the independently initiated, institutionally neutral collaborative council, when effectively led, is a kind of switchboard and forum for all these lines of communication and points of view. At their best, effective collaborative councils use this central position to enhance a community's alertness to linkages between local, state, and national agendas. Because of their ability to pull these interests together as opportunities arise, councils at various times have enabled local schools, colleges, employers, unions, and service agencies to create projects which have attracted funds from national philanthropic foundations and state and national government agencies. In so doing, individual councils play crucial roles in creating networks of information and practical experience among diverse groups.

National organizations

Two organizations, the National Association for Industry-Education Cooperation (NAIEC) and the National Work-Education Consortium (NWEC), are the principal national forums for discussion and advocacy of the concepts and practices of local collaborative councils.

National Association for Industry-Education Cooperation

NAIEC was established in 1964 and incorporated in September 1972 as a non-profit organization. Its origins extend further back to 1950 and the formation at that time of an Industry-Science Teaching Relations Section of the National Science Teachers Association (Horkheimer, 1974). Seeking to establish a broad base of relationships between industry and schools, and gaining the support of the National Association of Manufacturers, the leaders of the section formed a new organization:

> ...as a means of mobilizing the resources of education and industry (business, labor, government, agriculture, and the professions) to improve the relevance and quality of educational programs at all levels. It recognizes the need for a systems approach in assisting educators design a delivery system that is responsive to the changes in the marketplace (Ayars and Bovee, 1975, p. 29).

The primary objectives of NAIEC were and still are:

- To provide a national organization for representatives of business, industry, education, government, and labor to promote increased levels of cooperation.

- To identify areas of mutual interest and to formulate programs and procedures which meet acceptable standards.

- To communicate with any group concerned with education about cooperative programs and projects.

The new organization merged in 1972 with the National Community Resources Workshop Association. These workshops for school teachers had been conducted since 1952 across the nation but principally in Michigan and Ohio where university schools of education took particular interest in organizing local workshops. In some of these mid-western communities the annual workshop activity had been organized by a committee or council developed for that purpose. Thus the new organization began with two mechanisms--the workshops and local councils--for implementing its objectives in communities. Additionally, the founders of NAIEC set for themselves a broad set of functions including:

- Instruction - staff development programs such as Community Resources Workshops, Career Guidance Institutes, I-E In-Service Programs, internships in industry, experimental teaching programs, and activities in the areas of pre-service education and certification.
- Curriculum Development - innovative projects, liaison with State Departments of Education, and dissemination of experimental practices.
- Educational Management - institutes and regional conferences, management studies, and consultation services to school districts.
- Teacher-Student Materials - developing, selecting and disseminating usable industry-education materials, materials evaluation reports, and sponsored materials.
- Public Information Services - newsletter, NAIEC publications, reprints and audio-visual, special programs for I-E groups, releases to media editors and industry and education.

In 1979, the latest year for which official figures were available, NAIEC listed 562 individual members and thirty-seven council members. The 1979 national convention was attended by 219 persons.

In addition to its convention, advocacy of Industry-Education Councils, and sponsorship of Community Resources Workshops, the association published a quarterly newsletter, a semi-annual Journal of Industry-Education Cooperation, conducts an annual awards program, and organizes occasional regional conferences on school-based job placement services, work-experience programs, and education and economic development connections. In late 1981 NAIEC launched two activities aimed at school teachers on a modest membership fee basis: a national clearinghouse for industry-sponsored resources and a bi-monthly "Teacher's Guide to Industry-Education Cooperation." In recent years, NAIEC has been particularly active as a proponent of career education and has received contracts from the federal government's Office of Career Education to produce a film and manual advocating community-based Career Education Advisory Councils designed as collaborative councils.

Organizationally, NAIEC operates from the offices of its principal officers and staff. Its headquarters is in Buffalo, New York, where resides NAIEC's president. In September, 1979, the NAIEC president, who previously had been director of the Niagara Falls (NY) Industry-Education Council as well as NAIEC president, assumed full-time responsibility for the Association. The *Journal of Industry-Education Cooperation* is edited by a faculty member of the State University College at Buffalo and printed in Springfield, Massachusetts, where NAIEC's Secretary is based. The editor of the Association's newsletter is based at the University of Massachusetts' Amherst campus.

Officers and editors are accountable to an executive committee headed by the president and a Board of Directors. The Association by-laws were revised in 1981 to permit appointment of up to 60 directors drawn nationally principally from secondary, postsecondary, and governmental education agencies and the education and training offices of business organizations.

NAIEC draws a sharp distinction between councils organized on the NAIEC model, as outlined in the Association's handbook first published in the late 1960s, and other community-based collaborative councils. Council members of NAIEC include some which follow and some which differ from the NAIEC model.

The NAIEC model shares with most collaborative council designs a general concern for the total relationship between schools and postsecondary education on the one hand and work institutions on the other hand. But the need to apply limited resources to a specific set of activities, an agenda, results in a sharply focused NAIEC specification of an Industry-Education Council's (IEC) role. Two particular activities, school staff development and school curriculum development, are stressed:

> Staff and curriculum development within a particular school system constitute the core of an IEC's program and operation. The focus for an IEC, then, is directed at improving education; it seeks to wire the schools into the workplace in an organized and structured manner; its primary constituency, therefore, are students and professional school staff (Clark, 1980, p.2).

Through their volunteer efforts to improve the quality of the school curriculum, the industry (business, labor, government and the professions) members of an industry-education council "facilitate the process of a student's entry into the marketplace as a productive worker."

Within the staff and curriculum development framework, the NAIEC council model emphasizes a wide range of content including career education, economic and consumer education, school-based job placement, and career exploration. School management assistance is encouraged as a staff development service for school system business managers. This emphasis on staff development throughout the school system also is designed to provide opportunities for industry "to introduce its sponsored educational materials into the classroom in all subject areas at all levels."

From this specific framework of assistance in staff and curriculum development flow NAIEC's preference that local industry-education councils be organized and funded by local school systems yet be incorporated as independent organizations staffed preferably by an educator with business experience.

National Work-Education Consortium

The National Work-Education Consortium (NWEC) was incorporated as an independent non-profit organization in 1979. The Consortium grew out of a national demonstration project conceived and developed by the National Institute for Work and Learning (NIWL) several years earlier when the Institute was known as the National Manpower Institute (NMI).

In 1975 the Institute produced The Boundless Resource (Wirtz and the National Manpower Institute, 1975), which came to be recognized as a path-marking analysis of the need for a wholly new approach towards human resources policy-making and services delivery. The book's emphasis was on nationwide (not merely governmental) and multi-sector involvement in policy and program decision-making regarding the uses of education, training, and lifelong career development resources. A crucial element in this rationale was the assumption that local community leaders and institutions, *if* they could deal with each other on these matters through a formal, collaborative process, could design more effective solutions to human resource problems, and more effectively lead the policy-making process than could national governmental agencies.

The book strongly supported efforts to develop the concept and practices of career education--understood as a meeting of the liberal arts and vocational education--first advocated in 1971 by then U.S. Commissioner of Education Sidney Marland. But here too it was argued that success would depend on the capability of local schools, colleges, and communities to grapple with the broad implications of the concept.

Wirtz and the Institute staff and advisors recognized in the few then existing community task forces and councils the potential for developing the council mechanism beyond its concern for changing the schools to a wider concern for stimulating needed changes in the attitudes and practices of both work and education institutions. Thus the first proposal in the book (under the heading "Enlarging Present Beachheads") was to establish "in at least twenty-five cities, Community Education-Work Councils through which school officials, employers, members of labor unions, and members of the public engage collaboratively, in developing and administering education-work programs" (p. 170).

This proposal became one year later the Work-Education Consortium Project. The national project, supported financially in large part by the U.S. Department of Labor and monitored within the federal government by an interagency task force representing the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Department of Commerce, and Labor, was launched in 1976. To assure diversity in approach, responsibility for site selection was split among the Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC), the National Alliance of Business (NAB), and the National Manpower Institute. AACJC and NAB were to assist, respectively, local community colleges and NAB metropolitan programs to build on those institutional bases local councils on the NMI collaborative model. The Institute itself was to seek a diverse group of communities: some with already existing councils and some ready to develop collaborative councils; some in urban, some in rural, and some in suburban areas; some using the industry-education format, some using other formats; some specifically attempting to implement the broad collaborative process suggested in The Boundless Resource.

The total of thirty-two councils included seven established prior to the March 1976 initiation of the national project. One, the Industry-Education Council of California, brought together state-level leaders from the major sectors. The others were all intensely local and were evenly distributed over urban (e.g. Oakland, CA), rural (e.g. Gratiot County, MI), suburban (e.g. Mesa, AZ), urban/rural (e.g. East Peoria, IL), and urban/suburban (e.g. Charleston, SC). (National Manpower Institute, 1978a).

Educators and business/industry leaders were the initiators of most of the project councils. Among the educators, college presidents and high level administrators (most frequently from community colleges) exhibited especial leadership. Among school systems, career and vocational education administrators moreso than superintendents appeared to show the greatest interest. In only four cases had city government, community social service agencies, or organized labor taken a lead role in organizing a council.

The convening of the Consortium in April 1977 was part of the demonstration project's design to encourage sharing of ideas and experiences among the staff and members of the diverse councils. Councils were not directed to organize themselves in one particular way or another. Nor were they told in which specific activities to engage. Their broad guidelines encouraged diversity of approach and agenda by stating only that youth transition from school to work deserved special attention because (1) the preparation of youth for work was itself a critical national and local problem and because (2) the period of youth transition between the two sectors provided is also the point where the interests of educators and employers converge but where practical education, training, and support services for youth were especially lacking. Thus, focusing attention on the needs of 14 to 24 year old youths and the related problems of education and work organizations in the community was seen as a salient opportunity to engage the creativity and resourcefulness of community leaders as a first step toward broader collaborative problem-solving.

Twenty-three of the original thirty-two councils were operational during 1980-81 and are profiled in this project's Directory of Collaborative Councils. Another fifteen community councils were initiated during the Consortium Project's final year with the assistance of the states of Connecticut, Minnesota, North Carolina, and South Carolina. Also, during 1979-1980 the Michigan State Departments of Labor and Education, observing the effectiveness of Consortium councils in Wayne and Gratiot Counties, created with technical assistance from these councils and the Consortium Project staff of NIWL the Michigan Interagency Collaborative Initiative. This state Initiative, funded with both vocational education and CETA funds, resulted in the formation by mid-1980 of another twenty-five collaborative councils statewide.* Profiles of these forty councils created through state leadership as a direct consequence of the Work-Education Consortium Project are also included in the Directory.

The subsequent history, products, and outcomes of the Work-Education Consortium Project are reported elsewhere (National Manpower Institute, 1978a, 1978b, 1979; Mahoney, 1977, 1978; Prager et al., 1980, 1981). The Prager reports are the products of a 30-month evaluation study of the Consortium Project funded by the National Institute of Education.

Of particular relevance to this chapter is that twenty of the original councils which participated in the project decided in 1979 to continue their association beyond the term of the project. During the three years that they had received decreasing amounts of federal "seed" funding (up to $50,000 during the first two years, decreasing to as low as $2,000 in the third year), these councils had proven their ability to secure financial support from other local, state, and national sources. Mutual interests, financial insecurity, and the prospect for further dissemination and improvement of the concepts and practices of collaborative councils all combined to recommend the reorganization of the Consortium as an independent organization.

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* As of January 1982, a total of thirty-two "ICBs" were operational in Michigan.

The purposes for which the new organization was formed were:

- To improve transitions between education and work through Work-Education Councils, which may be composed of representatives of business, labor, government, education and the community;
- to develop the concepts of collaborative planning and action in reducing barriers and aiding the successful transitions between education and work;
- to promote the establishment of new Work-Education Councils;
- to stimulate information exchange and collaborative action among Work-Education Councils, and between such councils and other similar organizations;
- to contribute to and stimulate public discussions of policies that will improve transitions between education and work.

To implement these broad purposes the Consortium engages in several activities including: an annual conference, publication of a twice-monthly bulletin, a quarterly newsletter and occasional publications and projects among the member councils. A handbook produced by the Portland Work-Education Council serves as the Consortium handbook on forming and operating a collaborative council (Greater Portland Work Education Council, 1980).

Each of the three annual Consortium conferences held since 1979 has attracted about 85 people representing about 30 councils. The Consortium's focus on councils as members and the emphasis at meetings on assistance to councils specifically rather than collaborative mechanisms generally differentiates the Consortium from NAIEC.

During 1980-1981 twenty-four councils participated in the Consortium. Full membership in the Consortium is restricted to councils rather than individuals. To qualify for membership councils must be organized with a governing board, have by-laws or other operating documents, and have an active agenda of projects. Individuals and other organizations may join as associate members.

The member councils included the same diversity of geographic characteristics and types of councils as found in the earlier Consortium Project. Some of the councils participating in NWEC also belong the NAIEC. As an organization, NWEC stresses its commitment to local self-determination of an organizational design and an agenda appropriate to each community's needs and priorities. All councils have a general mission to improve the ways young people are prepared for the transition from education to work.

The consortium is governed by an executive committee elected by representatives of the member councils. The committee consists of a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, three members at large and the past president. In actual practice the NWEC officers and the designated council representatives to the Consortium (with occasional exceptions) have been the staff directors of the local councils.

Administratively the Consortium is directed by members of the executive committee working out of their local council offices. Staff support for the Consortium, including publication of the newsletter and bulletin, is provided by the staff of the National Institute for Work and Learning in Washington, D.C. The Institute also has assisted the Consortium to develop and demonstrate innovative projects such as the Career Passport Project funded by the U.S. Department of Labor in three council communities and the Collaboration for Adult Learners Project funded by the Kellogg Foundation in five council communities.

Other National Interests in Local Collaborative Councils

Many education interest groups have shown strong interest in the concepts of collaboration between the education, business, and labor sectors. Career education advocates have identified themselves particularly closely with the concepts and practices of collaborative councils (Hoyt, 1976; Hoyt, 1979). Advocates of vocational, cooperative, community, and adult education (and others) have each sought to use various mechanisms (e.g. advisory councils, course curricula, special projects, conferences) to create linkages with employers and unions.

But none of the national associations representing the professional interests of vocational, career, adult, community or other specialized educational fields can be said to represent the independent local collaborative councils reviewed by this project. On the other hand, individual examples of local councils created through the leadership of one or another type of educational specialist can be found. And certain career, vocational, or other advisory councils have developed in various places into collaborative councils. But on the whole, local industry-education-labor collaborative councils have been too few in number and too individualized in interests and resources to gain the attention of national education associations. This situation could change with the growing attention to public-private partnerships. But it is unlikely that national legislation or resources such as have been allocated to Private Industry Councils and, to a far lesser degree, State Advisory Councils on Vocational Education will provide incentives for this interest. If the connections to national education professional associations are to develop, this must occur from the grassroots up and without substantial resources.

The National Association of Private Industry Councils (NAPIC), formed in 1979, is roughly comparable to NAIEC and NWEC insofar as the strengthening of private involvement through local collaborative councils is a central interest to all three organizations. But NAPIC differs substantially from both NWEC and NAIEC in that linkages to education are of secondary interest to NAPIC members, whose primary concern is with local implementation of federal employment and training legislation. In some communities, overlapping membership and coordinated projects have linked the activities of PICs and industry-education-labor councils. At the national level, however, contacts between NAPIC and both NAIEC and NWEC have been rare.

Federal and State Coordinators for Industry-Education-Labor

In November 1971, the U.S. Commissioner of Education (USOE) established a new position of federal coordinator for Industry-Education-Labor. The purpose of the new position was:

> ...to provide leadership in stimulating and coordinating collaborative relationships between the business and industrial community, the labor force, government at all levels, and the schools; to serve as a clearinghouse of information on ways in which industrial and labor resources may be applied more effectively to meet educational needs; and to coordinate USOE activities to stimulate closer ties among the schools and the employers (Mendez, 1979).

The position was created at the same time that then Commissioner Sidney Marland was introducing programs and demonstration projects to give shape to the new concept of career education. This active and top level leadership in creating new interest in and mechanisms for collaborative relationships helped to build momentum for the activities of the federal coordinator.

One of the first actions of the coordinator was to identify an I-E-L coordinator in each of USOE's ten regional offices and each of the fifty states (typically the state coordinator was chosen from the ranks of professional staff in the state department of education). Coordinators also were named in the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Trust Territories, less the Virgin Islands.

Without any formal federal policy, program, or funding, the functioning of these coordinators depended largely on the personal interest and abilities of individual coordinators. For three years--from 1971 through 1974--the federal coordinator was able to nurture these state and regional coordinators into something of a network. The principle means available was a series of meetings around the nation at which these coordinators and counterparts from business, industry, and labor would discuss strategies to encourage communities to work out unique local solutions to mutually identified needs and problems.

The October 1974 "Progress Report" prepared by the federal coordinator (Mendez, 1974) provides evidence of substantial progress within the limited resources available. While working to stimulate the attention of the state and regional I-E-L coordinators, the federal coordinator placed equal emphasis on obtaining support for USOE's I-E-L concept from key national business, industry, labor, and educational organizations. The 1974 report is in effect a catalog of discussions, organizational policy statements, and diverse action projects initiated across the nation.

Much of this activity reflected the fermenting of the career education concepts advocated by Dr. Marland and others. Clear too is that some of the regional and state coordinators in fact had taken great personal interest in their new responsibilities. The activities of I-E-L coordinators in almost half the states merited some degree of special mention. Many diverse types of partnership arrangements are noted.

Facilitating the formation of local Industry-Education-Labor Councils was seen as an important part of the coordinator role. New councils in Buffalo, New York; East Peoria, Illinois; Alma, Michigan; and Flint, Michigan, are described in detail. (Three participated three years later in the Work-Education Consortium Project.) Also described is the apparent enthusiasm of national groups: the Chamber of Commerce, the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, the Education Commission of the States, the Council of Chief

State School Officers, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, the National Restaurant Association, the California Industry-Education Council, and the National Association for Industry-Education Cooperation (itself just recently reorganized). The interests and activities of these organizations in vocational and career education, the creation of task forces, steering committees, and community level action is reported. The tone of the "Progress Report" is one of snowballing interest in "the I-E-L action concept."

By 1980 the position of the federal coordinator had changed considerably as had the functioning of the state and regional coordinators. From being a largely catalytic, marketing position with no programmatic funds or emphasis, the role had diminished into a primarily internal planning function. Career education, supported with legislation and institutionalized with its own office and program, now bore the main responsibility for encouraging industry, business, labor, and general community involvement in educational matters. Local vocational education advisory committees were now mandated by legislation. The intended connection between a broadly conceived approach to I-E-L collaboration and more specialized vocational skill programs was separated at the federal level.

Substantial progress by 1976 in legislation and funding both career and vocational education programs acted to undermine the role of the I-E-L coordinator. Within another two years substantial federal monies and new programs for youth employment initiatives through local and state governments would divert energies and attention in ways that an unfunded, catalytic position could not begin to manage. The 1978 reorganization of the Office of Education sharply reduced the capabilities of the DHEW regional offices.

Even so, lists of regional and state I-E-L coordinators were maintained. Meanwhile at the regional and state level, reductions in resources for the I-E-L function and the addition of other required and discretionary functions had undermined the meaningfulness of the coordinator position in all but a few states.

During mid-1980, the Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration Project, with the assistance of the federal coordinator for I-E-L, surveyed nine of the ten ED (then HEW) regional I-E-L coordinators. The findings were consistent with the federal coordinator's 1979 view that "a surge of events has forced USOE to shift priorities." In effect, a "network" of regional and state I-E-L coordinators existed only on paper.

There were no formal position descriptions, although several coordinators had brief, self-defined senses of the I-E-L coordinator role. The regional coordinators perceived that role as a very low (less than one day per month) or low (less than one day per week) responsibility.

One regional coordinator observed that the 1978 reorganization and recentralization of DHEW staff had eliminated all regional capability to perform any I-E-L coordination responsibilities. Suggested remedies were to include I-E-L responsibilities as a formal element of the regional office work plan and to provide funds enabling the performance of those responsibilities.

In sum, the combination of a lack of formal work plan, the lack of resources, the burden of many other higher priority responsibilities, and the lack of sustained guidance from the Department had resulted over time in the perfunctory passing of the I-E-L regional coordinator title from head to head. Those few coordinators who showed awareness of the role identified its responsibilities with improving inter-sector communications on vocational and career education programs. Among all ten coordinators, only one could identify a single local collaborative council. Two others indicated that the State Advisory Councils on Vocational Education were responsible for all I-E-L activities in their regions and several were aware of an effective state I-E-L coordinator.

The project staff also attempted to contact informally I-E-L coordinators in states designated as once active by the federal coordinator. Among the twenty-one states contacted only six appeared to have active coordinators. In only two of these were the coordinators involved with and knowledgeable about local collaborative councils. Other active coordinators were involved with a variety of interests: programs for high technology industry, youth job placement and entrepreneurship, career guidance centers, industry-school energy-related programs, and business-industry resource directories. Thus even when active state I-E-L coordinators could be identified, the profile of coordinator activities--however useful in their own ways--reveals no common format or program, only a common intent to connect the private sector (primarily business and industry) with schools.

The evidence strongly suggests that the federal I-E-L coordinator initiative as presently structured is not an effective network. Some evidence in the 1974 reports of the federal coordinator indicates that the coordinator network concept did show promise at one time. The performance of the former New York State coordinator provides further evidence that the role can be used effectively by the right person in the right place as a means to facilitate the formation of local councils.

But the larger story is told in the numbers of states which have created other positions to deal with the needs of industry. Of particular significance are state efforts to link vocational education directly to economic development activities (Tuttle and Wall, 1978). The growth of industry services offices to developed tailored skill training programs in skills centers and community colleges has received far more attention from state departments than has been given to the more fragmented, less clearly defined role of an I-E-L coordinator. Similarly, aided by the Career Education Incentive Act and by the popularity of career education as a concept embracing career information, exploration, and experience, many states have also seen career education coordinators as another key component of their strategy to better connect education with work institutions.

In this context it is clear that the state I-E-L coordinators cannot serve as a useful national network for local collaboration at this time. Nor is it likely that while resources for state education agencies are being reduced, that the network could be revived by developing a less fragmented, more narrowly focused definition of the state coordinator role.

Interactions Among National Education, Business, and Labor Organizations

During the course of the project NIWL contacted senior staff of a large number of national organizations representing various segments of the education, business, and labor sectors. Informal interviews were conducted with representatives of four education associations, four business groups, and four major unions. Reports and position papers and informal conversations resulted in a substantial amount of information regarding the views of these and other organizations.

The range of national, state, and local organizations involved in collaborative education-work efforts is quite wide. Whether or not collaboration is a conscious organizational priority, nearly every group contacted by

NIWL staff for this study is involved in at least one form of intra- or intersector linkage, and often several.

What types of collaborative activities are these groups involved in? Do they generally work within their own sector or do they also form linkages across sectors?

Among education associations, the degree of collaboration varies substantially. For example:

- One group representing school administrators routinely works with other education groups, business, labor, foundations, community groups, and government on a variety of education and youth-related issues. Linkages, particularly with other education groups, are essential for advancing specific causes and legislation because, as one representative explained, "we can't go it alone."
- Typical of most education groups, another association works mainly with other education groups, though it would like to work more closely with business and industry.
- The Consortium on Education for Employment brings together five major education groups and two state government associations in a first attempt to give public sector state organizations a common basis for action on issues affecting education-employment linkings with the private sector.

Collaboration between educators and business is much in evidence throughout the local constituencies of many education associations.

- One association is primarily an accrediting organization which acts as an intermediary between local industry and the postsecondary trade and technical schools which make up the membership. Industry provides experts who assist in the association's quality control work.
- At the local level, members of one association of mid-level administrators work closely on curricular issues with business and career and vocational education programs. At the national level, the association collaborates primarily with other education groups, especially those responsible for school governance issues.

A very limited sample of business groups yields reports of few collaborative efforts.

- One of the leading organizations representing chief executive officers reports few ties or cooperative efforts with other organizations, though it occasionally works on issues with other major business groups. It has almost no contact whatsoever with secondary education groups.

- According to another organization, it does not often work on education-work issues with other groups, whether industry, education, or labor. Recently, however, it and other business associations have been part of a coalition organized to study the vocational education reauthorization.
- Another leading business group representing a broad cross-section of local business leadership has for some years sponsored a clearinghouse on economic education materials and related resources. Allied to this effort the association also has an active committee reviewing education, employment, and training policies. Interest in providing leadership for human resource policy making is moving this association toward more frequent, even routine, contacts with education associations.
- Representatives of national business groups are appointed from time to time to national advisory councils to the U.S. Department of Education

Trade associations reported a high level of involvement in industry-education matters by the local corporate members of their associations. But the education staff of these associations reported only limited contact with national education associations and none at all with their labor union counterparts. Many such association staff reported that their role was limited by the desire of member firms to conduct educational outreach efforts of their own, leaving national association staff unauthorized to initiate collaborative efforts at the national level.

- The education departments of trade associations typically prepare educational materials about their industries. These materials are made available to local schools for classroom use. Materials may be sent directly by mass mailing, on individual request, or more typically by member firms as part of their community relations efforts locally.
- Some trade associations--the steel and insurance industries are good examples--sponsor programs at colleges and universities at which faculty and students can interact with industry executives in a seminar format. These open-ended, intellectually challenging meetings are two-way streets: providing the industry with insight into current attitudes on campus and contact with possible management candidates, and giving students and faculty opportunities to understand contemporary industry methods and perspectives.

Conversations with labor union representatives suggested a quickly growing interest in collaboration on education issues, particularly with other unions and with education groups.

- The fact that teacher and faculty unions link the education and labor sectors has resulted in some collaboration at the national level. For example, the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association, as well as the AFL-CIO and other unions participate in the Committee for Full Funding of Education Programs. The AFT and NEA have also participated in the National Coalition for Parent Involvement in Education.

- The AFL-CIO Education Department publishes a periodic newsletter and conducts an annual conference, both aimed at informing labor unions about educational news and at creating linkages between educators and unions.

- Other contacts have developed through such intermittent initiatives as the Service Center for Community Colleges-Labor Union Cooperative which was operated as a project of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges. Several national union groups have worked with higher education organizations through demonstration projects sponsored by the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education.

- Representatives of organized labor are appointed from time to time to national advisory councils to the U.S. Department of Education.

- Several unions are involved in organizing the "To Educate the People Consortium," a coalition of unions, colleges, and public broadcasters designed to promote worker access to higher education.

- Apprenticeship programs are one area where collaboration between labor and management has a long and fruitful history, with federal authority and assistance dating from the National Apprenticeship Act of 1937. In 1979, of the 50,704 registered apprenticeship programs, over 7,300 were organized jointly by employers and unions. These covered approximately two-thirds of the almost 300,000 workers in apprenticeship programs. For those industries where employers and unions have signed a trust agreement to create an apprenticeship and training fund, national joint apprenticeship and training committees are formed. However actual collaborative contacts with education institutions occur almost exclusively at the state and local level.

In balance, while the activities linking labor, education, and business are increasing, they are almost entirely bilateral at the national level. Yet even the various business-education and labor-education activities are relatively few to date, and mostly marginal in significance unless one assumes that what exists today is a prelude to more sustained and substantive action.

This discussion of national organizations' involvement in industry-education-labor collaboration suggests several general observations. First, a discussion must be drawn between those groups for which collaboration is an inherent part of the functions they perform and those for which collaboration is an "extra" organizational involvement.

Second, for the majority of organizations surveyed, collaboration represents a decision to pursue extra-organizational involvements because doing so will enhance achievement of the organization's goals. Thus, it appears that usually groups are motivated by a particular issue or specific legislative initiative to form linkages with other groups with the same or similar concerns. This issue-oriented approach is in contrast to the approach taken by local communities which promote the collaborative process as a multi-issue, sustained activity in a collaborative council.

Finally, it appears that intrasector collaboration is more common than inter-sector linkages, though both are certainly evident from the interviews. the most common form of intersector linkage appears to be between business and education. One education spokesperson explained that "there is a historic connection between business and the schools. The connection between educators and labor is more recent, what with growing unionization of school personnel." The prevalence of intrasector collaboration is not surprising, given the fact of similarity of interests as a motivating factor.

Organizational Perspectives on Collaboration

Organizations were asked what they perceived as barriers to collaboration and how they felt the collaborative process could best work.

It is interesting to note that the barriers to collaboration cited by different organizations were remarkably similar. Repeatedly, the following conditions were reported as barriers:

- Lack of trust and understanding between sectors.
- Turf issues and conflicting institutional agendas and perspectives
- Lack of sufficient time, staff, and financial resources to fully address collaborative issues.

As one union spokesperson explained his organization's stance vis a vis collaboration:

> There is an ongoing tension between our philosophical belief in the collaborative idea, as well as our awareness of the benefits it would yield, and our organizational priorities based on limited staff and resources.

An educational association representative described the problems and potential of collaboration as follows:

> The concept of collaborative efforts is good, but they run into problems because no one wants to give up power. It's not a model that works; it's the people that make up the model....But collaboration will become more important in the future, because as budgets and staff shrink, people will need to pull together and pool their resources. What people need to do is to look for the things upon which they can agree.

The above statement suggests that the same thing which acts initially as a deterrent to collaboration--shrinking resources--is what will make collaboration that much more important in the future.

How can the collaborative process be enhanced? Should the impetus be from the federal government or from local communities?

The most common theme emerging from the interviews in response to these queries is that local planning, involvement, and accountability is key to making collaboration happen, but that the federal government should be involved in facilitating the process. The facilitation could happen through initiating programs and demonstration projects, providing funding or other incentives, coordinating efforts, and reducing bureaucracy.

Overall, interviewees had a sense of the practical and philosophical benefits of collaboration, along with a realistic appraisal of the difficulties involved in achieving it.

At the time these interviews were conducted during late 1980 and early 1981, almost none of the persons interviewed from national organizations were directly aware of involvement by their local members in local collaborative councils. These interviews revealed a high degree of recognition that the national organizations themselves had as yet not discovered a formula or approach which met that need. Moreover, the burden of representing specific constituencies at the national level seemed to mean that limited financial, staff, and political resources could not be allocated to that purpose.

Conclusion

The net result of this discussion can be summarized in three points:

- Decisions regarding whether or not to initiate collaborative councils and other collaborative mechanisms or projects are local and state level decisions. These ideas, competing with other ideas for scarce resources, are best served by accurate information so that decisions can be accurately adjusted to the mix of problems, priorities, and local willingness to "invest" in a specific course of action. Therefore, the prime purpose of improving networking ought to be to improve the flow of accurate information about councils and their potential and appropriate contributions to resolving community problems. At most, the role of the federal government should be to assure that information is available regarding the scope and quality of collaborative councils, partnerships and similar mechanisms.

- To the extent that existing collaborative council staff and members need the advice, insights, and moral support of other councils, these supports are best provided through the voluntary state and national membership organizations organized for that purpose. The ebbing and flowing of these associations should be directly in proportion to the benefits that they provide to their members. Of course, there may be times when a special interest of a federal or state government agency, or of a private sector business, union, or foundation coincides with the mission of one of these associations of persons and councils interested in improved collaboration at the local level. Specific information dissemination or demonstration projects clearly are justified on a case by case basis.

- The encouragement of industry-education-labor collaboration is a legitimate policy for the federal government as it is also a legitimate policy for the industry, education, and labor sectors themselves. The extent of encouragement will vary, of course, with the expectations of benefits accruing to each sector and to society as a whole. Each decision about how to implement a policy of encouragement carries with it a set of responsibilities and costs.

For example, the initial decision to establish a federal coordinator for industry-education-labor was implemented at a very modest cost (one staff position, secretarial support, and some travel and conference costs) to achieve objectives of concept popularization and activity stimulation. That low-cost effort created, however, expectations among regional and state coordinators and, presumably, among the many businesses, labor unions, and national associations contacted the expectation that the federal government intended to back up its advocacy of a general idea with more specific documentation and assistance.

Actions speak louder than words. If the state or federal governments, or business leaders, or labor leaders, or education leaders, or others are going to encourage industry-education-labor collaboration, then each is obliged to back those words with a thoughtful program of responsibilities and actions. Providing accurate and thorough information is a responsibility particularly appropriate for the federal government. Developing and implementing specific services is an area of responsibility particularly appropriate to the direct partners in collaboration. Government cannot enforce collaboration.

The unique strength of the collaborative council is that it provides a forum where the commitments of the sectors can be put to the test. The councils themselves are only as strong as the seriousness of that commitment

Likewise, a network of councils will only be as strong as the commitments made by the councils themselves. Financial support of national organization activities may aid the dissemination of council practices in the short run but would result in a top heavy structure if not supported in the long run as are most membership organizations: by the members themselves through dues and services.

State education department leadership in developing local collaborative councils will only occur under current conditions if the chief state school officer is persuaded to place council development on the department's priority agenda. That decision is only likely to occur if the department laeders are persuaded that local councils offer the opportunity to connect at the community level the ideas and resources now identified separately as vocational education, basic skills, career education, and job placement into an economic development-career development continuum. (See Chapter VI for further analysis.)

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CHAPTER V

ASSESSING THE IMPACTS OF COLLABORATIVE COUNCILS

Originally, the American Institutes for Research aimed in this chapter to do two things: (1) assess the impact of I-E-L councils on the climate for collaborative activities in their communities; and (2) assess the degree to which I-E-L efforts improved access to high quality vocational education programs, especially for special needs groups such as women, minorities, disadvantaged, and early school leavers. As a result of early analysis of the information needs of the Department of Education (ED), AIR added efforts to investigate the relationships between collaborative I-E-L councils and other types of multisector councils, generally those mandated by vocational education, CETA, and economic development legislation.

On-site interviews were conducted at five sites: Boston, Massachusetts; Niagara Falls and Erie County, New York; Erie, Pennsylvania; Akron, Ohio; and Contra Costa County, California. Based on earlier project efforts, these sites were chosen by NIWL as those that most clearly represented the collaborative concept in action--that is, sites whose councils:

- were essentially self-organized and responsible for their own continuity;
- were performance-oriented as either project operators, brokers, or both, as opposed to strictly advisory; and
- represented at least two, and preferably more, community sectors, such as education, business/industry, labor, government, and youth service institutions, as equal partners (i.e., these representatives and their institutions share responsibility for implementing the council's action agenda).

Each site was visited for two to four days, and semi-structured interviews were conducted with key members and staff of the I-E-L council and other area councils. (As it turned out, only four sites actually had I-E-L councils in operation; Akron had only well-developed informal relationships among members of the several sectors.) A detailed site visit report on each of the five sites was prepared by the AIR staff. The reports provide information on all of the major variables postulated as constituting or affecting I-E-L council impact. These variables were described in AIR's first major report under this contract, Design for the Impact Assessment of Industry-Education-Labor (I-E-L) Councils (Rossi, 1980).

Hypothesized Impact Models

AIR's first task was to propose cause-effect models that illustrate graphically the presumed logic whereby I-E-L councils can achieve impact. In this context, impact was defined as changes in:

- I-E-L council participants themselves
- agencies represented on I-E-L councils
- agencies not represented on I-E-L councils
- youths and other populations with employment and training needs
- the general public

Figure V-1 displays the first such model prepared by AIR prior to its site visits: it represents a hypothesized council that is organized for the purpose of planning and then conducting activities designed to improve services for youth. The major areas of hypothesized impact are represented in heavy boxes.

As a result of the site visits, it became apparent that none of the four I-E-L councils visited by AIR was accurately represented by the generalized model in Figure V-1. Most councils came into existence because of particular perceived needs and the action of one concerned agency. In some cases, the planning and conduct of activities aimed at meeting the perceived needs

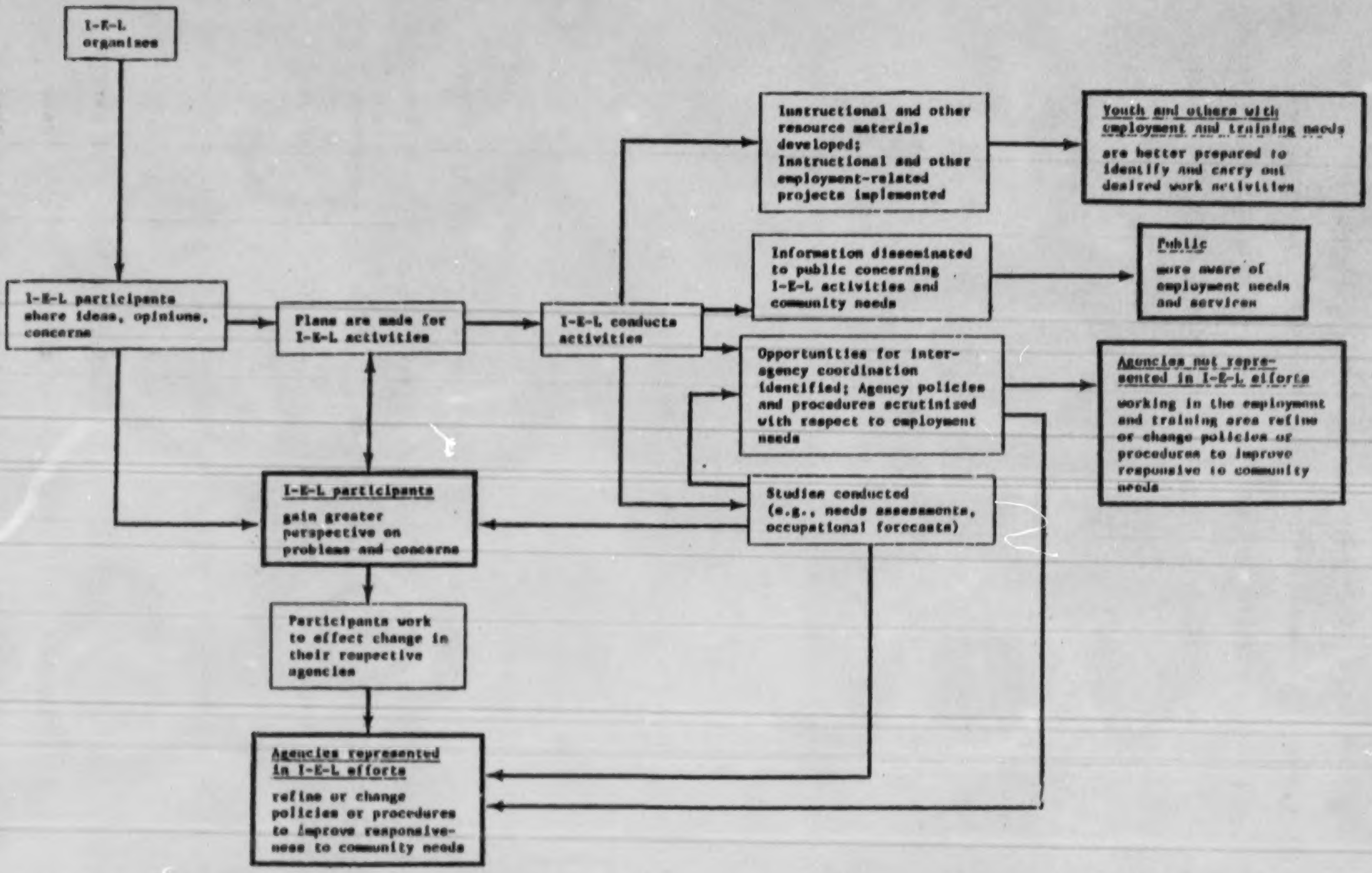
I-E-L organizes
I-E-L participants share ideas, opinions, concerns
Plans are made for I-E-L activities
I-E-L conducts activities
Instructional and other resource materials developed; Instructional and other employment-related projects implemented
Information disseminated to public concerning I-E-L activities and community needs
Opportunities for inter-agency coordination identified; Agency policies and procedures scrutinized with respect to employment needs
Studies conducted (e.g., needs assessments, occupational forecasts)
Youth and others with employment and training needs
are better prepared to identify and carry out desired work activities
Public
more aware of employment needs and services
Agencies not represented in I-E-L efforts
working in the employment and training area refine or change policies or procedures to improve responsive to community needs
I-E-L participants
gain greater perspective on problems and concerns
Participants work to effect change in their respective agencies
Agencies represented in I-E-L efforts
refine or change policies or procedures to improve responsiveness to community needs

Figure V-1. Hypothesized Intended-Sequence Model of I-E-L Council Efforts

preceded the formation of the collaborative council. Indeed, these cases appeared to represent the most action-oriented councils and those most conducive to measurable impact on client populations. The individual site reports contain specific models for each of the four sites where identifiable collaborative I-E-L councils existed.

The I-E-L Collaborative Councils in Operation

Erie City and County, Pennsylvania

Industry and education had built a strong relationship in the Erie area well before the forming of the I-E-L council, the Education-Work Council of Erie City and County, in 1976. This relationship grew out of shortages of skilled labor in the area and the difficulty of importing trained workers from other regions. The council was originally funded by the Department of Labor as part of NIWL's Education-Work Project initiative. Its chief strength is its Executive Director, whose drive to achieve council goals and whose active membership on all other relevant councils in the area make him an extremely effective leader.

The primary activities of this I-E-L council are: (1) research and publications; (2) technical assistance activities and workshops; (3) support for other local councils; and (4) proposal development for youth-serving agencies and institutions. Its purposes are to promote collaboration, act as a broker between other organizations, and serve as a resource for other youth-serving agencies. This facilitative/coordinative role guides all council projects and is carried out primarily by the Executive Director, working independently or in cooperation with individual council members. The role of the council itself is largely to discuss needs, suggest ideas, and approve projects proposed by the Executive Director. Though the council has two representatives of organized labor, their participation is not extensive.

Other councils play a significant role in Erie City and County. The Erie County Technical School General Advisory Board (the county vocational education advisory body) is particularly strong in bringing together education, industry, labor, CBOs, and government. Its role as program and curriculum advisor to the secondary-level technical school and the adult level skills center gives it a focus that is demonstrably important to all sectors.

The City and County CETA councils are advisory in nature and do not operate programs. The Private Industry Council (PIC) develops and operates programs, but has not been active long enough to have much impact and has no plans to offer services specifically for youths.

Contra Costa County, California

The I-E-L council in Contra Costa County, the Industry Education Council of East Contra Costa County, arose for different reasons in a different context. Rather than labor shortages, its immediate area is experiencing loss of jobs in heavy industry. Though some cooperation between education and industry existed, the impetus for council formation was an agreement between the Pittsburg (California) Unified School District and the statewide Industry Education Council of California. The statewide body provided leadership in developing the idea, proposal writing expertise, and staff for the project. In the first project and several subsequent efforts, the statewide body has been the grantee for state and federal awards to the local council. It has also obtained CETA funds. The experience of success in the first effort was the basis for the incorporation of the I-E-L council in 1978 and its pursuit of independent funding ideas. The council is now strongly supported by most major area industries and the four school districts in the regions. Labor participation is not extensive.

In contrast to the Erie City and County I-E-L council, Contra Costa County's council is project-oriented. Its projects deal with careers and in-class experiences for handicapped youth, business panels' presentations for all high school youth, and economic education. Its board is a regular source of ideas and support, and its staff works to marshall the resources of other agencies and businesses as well as those on the council. The staff does not play the prominent role played by the Erie City and County I-E-L council Executive Director, however.

The two other major area councils are the CETA council and the PIC. The CETA council is officially an advisory body, but plays a fairly large role in selecting and evaluating CETA contractors. It is currently making efforts to focus on women and the handicapped in upcoming programs. It was unique in this study in having an active labor representative, who served as council president. The PIC has already established several small, carefully targeted training programs, and is viewed as very promising by its members. It includes Asians among its high-priority target groups, though not specifically youths.

Boston, Massachusetts

This I-E-L council in Boston, the Tri-Lateral Council for Quality Education, Inc., was formed in 1974 in anticipation of a federal court order to desegregate the Boston public schools. It was formed by the Greater Boston Chamber of Commerce, NAB, and the Boston School Department. Its funds came from corporate membership dues, foundation grants, state desegregation money, and state vocational education money. It has also obtained CETA (YEDPA) monies through Youthwork, Inc.

Like the Contra Costa County council, the Boston I-E-L council is project-oriented. Its overall goal is to mobilize business and community resources to improve educational quality. Its major activities are a partnership program between local schools and major corporations, the development or career-related programs and materials, and a career development skills program for students. These efforts may be better described as cooperative rather than collaborative, since the battle-scarred Boston schools appear to have become more the recipient of council services than a partner in the programs. The council's most collaborative effort to date has been the recent establishment of a broadly representative advisory committee for the new Hubert H. Humphrey Occupational Resource Center. As in the other I-E-L councils, labor participation is not extensive.

The CETA council in Boston has very little role in CETA programs, leaving that to the staff, who are employees of the city government. The PIC is more active. Like the I-E-L council, it has helped set up advisory groups for the Humphrey Occupational Resource Center. The planning of the Center has given the PIC an obvious initial role. This role has attracted senior business executives to the PIC, lending it further influence and credibility. It has also established training programs and published several documents for employers and job seekers.

Buffalo and Erie County, New York

The Buffalo and Erie County I-E-L council, the Niagara Frontier Industry Education Council, is the only truly self-initiated council AIR visited. It was created in 1973 by the Buffalo Chamber of Commerce and educators to promote the exchange of information between industry and education. As in the other sites, labor participation is not extensive.

Since its creation, the I-E-L council's focus has been on the Erie County suburbs rather than the City of Buffalo. This is partly because of its strong ties to the Erie County BOCES program, of which the council's Executive Director is a staff member. Its funds come primarily from membership dues. Its role is as catalyst for and broker among industry and education to promote development of joint programs. It also gathers occupational information for students, develops course materials for teachers and administrators about the world of work, and coordinates job shadowing programs, career days, and teacher/industry exchange programs.

The city and county CETA councils have some overlap in membership and have the same chairman. They are more active than the Boston CETA council, although they are not involved in initiating program ideas. The city and county occupational education advisory groups are both strictly advisory. The PIC is the only mandated council in the area that spans both the city and county. This decision was a deliberate effort to avoid the "turf" problems that plague other councils, but to date it seems only to have slowed down initial project efforts.

Akron, Ohio

No true collaborative council exists in Akron. Instead, the Akron Public Schools Career Education Program staff is the hub of a well developed set of bilateral cooperative relationships between business, industry, labor, and education. The relationships between business/industry and the schools are extremely long-standing, dating back officially to 1946. Activities are funded by a variety of sources, governmental and private, and labor plays a larger role than in any other site. This is partially due to the fact that the very active career education program leadership initiated separate efforts to establish a labor-education relationship when labor representatives expressed reluctance to become involved in business/industry-dominated cooperative activities.

The Akron Career Development Program is a nationally recognized exemplary effort. The program's director has exercised effective leadership in working with other organizations to sponsor projects for students in the Akron schools.

For example, a Youth Motivation Task Force program, sponsored by NAB, brings business people into Akron schools; a Project Business is operated by Junior Achievement; a Job Readiness Program is sponsored by the local American Society for Personnel Administration chapter; and a large program of community resource speakers and field trip sites throughout Akron is coordinated through the Career Education Program for most of the district's elementary and secondary schools.

Other area councils are similar in function to those in other sites. The CETA council is advisory, although it is a strong and active council. The PIC is young and still oriented primarily to short-term projects rather than collaboration with other sectors. The vocational education and career education advisory council has broad representation and is active in providing information to the schools, but is not a decision making body.

Akron's bilateral relationships have proven very effective at meeting the needs of the education sector. Yet Akron interviewees felt much could be gained by a truly collaborative mechanism that could coordinate the needs of all sectors.

Common Characteristics

Several common features characterize the four I-E-L councils and also the Akron site; many were also identified by Prager et al. (1980).

- Educators formed the largest block of members, followed by business, with other types of organizations in the minority.
- Business representatives were usually from large companies.
- Linkages between the councils and other organizations with whom they might have worked, particularly CETA advisory councils, were often weak.
- Activities and focus of the councils varied, but all could be characterized as marshalling existing resources more effectively to meet strongly perceived local needs.

Outcomes of I-E-L Council Efforts for Students

Of the four I-E-L collaborative councils AIR visited for this study, two identified themselves as facilitators and two as program implementors. No council was primarily of the project demonstrator type, though a successful project in Contra Costa County had been turned over to the district staff to continue.

The measurability of outcomes of council efforts depended primarily on whether the council had a facilitator role or a program implementor role. The two councils that played a facilitator role, Erie and Buffalo, did not provide direct services; instead, they attempted to serve as a catalyst in enhancing the efforts of other agencies in the community with direct service provision roles. As a result, the outcomes of their efforts were difficult to quantify. Those two councils that identified their roles as program implementors, Contra Costa County and Boston, were able to quantify the results of many of their efforts. For instance, the Boston council career development project involved 110 teachers and 6,000 students. In Contra Costa County, 194 handicapped students participated in career exploration experiences and 100 students were reached by business panel presentations.

No I-E-L council was able to provide specific data on student job placements, except incidentally. In general, none of the visited councils considered student placement to be a direct intended outcome of its services. No council members suggested that any direct contribution to the economic development of their area had been made by the council's efforts.

Primary results of council activities were the development of work exposure and exploration experience for youths and the development of curriculum and resource materials for classroom use. Three of the four I-E-L councils had focused at least some of their services on special needs youth, including women, minorities, the handicapped, or early school leavers. But only in Contra Costa County, where projects for handicapped students were primary council efforts, could the numbers of participating special needs students be provided.

Impact of I-E-L Councils on Climate for Collaboration

With respect to I-E-L council impacts, the climate for collaboration in a community has three components: (1) on the council members and, through them, the organizations they represent; (2) on organizations not represented through council membership; and (3) on the general public.

Intra-Council Efforts

It would seem that, by definition, the existence of an I-E-L council would improve the climate for collaboration among the sectors represented on the council. Yet, as reported in Prager et al. (1980), councils can have a variety of internal problems that work against successful collaboration, ranging from personality conflicts to disagreements over goals and methods. Since the councils we visited were selected in part on their record of success, we found no major problems. Collaborative activity had increased in each site we visited, and the prospects for continued growth, based on the reinforcement provided by successful experiences, were good.

Effects on Other Organizations

Other organizations that can be affected by council activities include non-member businesses, labor groups, governmental bodies, CBOs, and youth-serving agencies, as well as other councils.

The four I-E-L councils AIR visited indicated an improved climate for collaboration, as evidenced by sustained or increasing membership and increased involvement of members in council-sponsored activities. However, this growth was confined primarily to business/industry and education groups. The greatest weakness in membership in every council was lack of labor representation; youth-serving agencies, CBOs, and noneducation governmental bodies were also present infrequently. Labor representatives who were interviewed generally expressed the view that councils in their areas were dominated by business/industry and education interests who were generally unsympathetic to the concerns of organized labor.

Inter-council relationships were more complex. Geographical and functional "turf" considerations played a role in the effectiveness of an I-E-L council in working with CETA, PIC, and vocational education advisory councils. For example, the Erie County, New York, I-E-L council actually had few connections with councils in Buffalo because it was active with the county vocational education advisory council, which was widely seen by both bodies as a "rival" to its city counterpart.

In no case was representation of an I-E-L council on other councils mandated. However, in several cases an I-E-L council representative was chosen for a mandated position on another council. And in every site, AIR found overlapping membership among councils. The effectiveness of inter-council communication via these mechanisms was mixed. In Erie City and County, Pennsylvania, the role of the Executive Director as a member of all area councils made his position as a facilitator of collaboration extremely useful. Yet in other sites, overlapping membership led to little or no increase in inter-council collaboration or even to discussion of the possibility. Most interviewees felt that the roles of the different kinds of councils (I-E-L, CETA, PIC, and vocational education) were different and that further collaboration among them would not be useful. Some saw inter-council collaboration or the "umbrella council" idea as merely another bureaucratic layer.

Effects on the General Public

Interviewees from all four councils stated that the general public had increased its awareness of youth school-to-work transition needs, if not of the council itself, since the council was formed. Several cited newspaper articles, increased requests for information, and increased requests for publications and technical assistance. However, often by design, the greatest visibility has gone to participating organizations rather then the I-E-L council itself.

Essential Elements for Productive Change

Each council visited for this project has different strengths and resources for bringing about productive change. Several successful common elements can be identified.

Leadership

In each council one person or agency took the lead in getting the council formed and an agenda in place. For example, in the Erie City and County council, one strong individual is the center of council action. In Contra Costa County, an individual outside the local setting--the director of the Industry Education Council of California--provided the sustained support needed to turn a good idea into a successful project and a successful experience for the individuals from the various sectors. In Akron, leadership from the career education program is essential in building community goodwill into action to help youth.

Willingness of Individuals in Upper Management Positions to Get Involved

Few council members were corporate CEOs or district superintendents. But most were only one or two steps removed from these levels; they were individuals in a position to influence their organization's policies and to commit resources to council activities. Most individuals interviewed donated up to a day a month of their time for council activities, and many also donated clerical and other services, facilities, and supplies. Many also marshalled volunteers and services for council projects. This support is essential for the success of a non-mandated council.

Broad Base of Financial Support

Every visited council had obtained funds from multiple sources, including member dues, foundations, and various federal and state departments. For a non-mandated council, such breadth of support is important, especially in a period of federal government funding cutbacks.

Successful Action

It is the rare council that can survive for long without successful action on a project. Even facilitator councils must produce results from their facilitative endeavors or those of their staff in order to sustain commitment. Business/industry involvement in particular is likely to lessen if success is not experienced. Each council visited had an early successful project that served as a basis for aspirations to expand activities. In some cases, the successful project actually preceded the planning process for the overall council agenda. The councils cannot be faulted for this order of events, because motivation must precede action, and for many communities an early success experience is essential to provide motivation.

Activity Ideas Must Reflect Genuine Community Concerns

Good ideas do not always need to arise spontaneously from the community. However, a council's agenda must be in tune with real concerns of the various sectors, or council projects will not attract support or clientele. The agendas of the four councils visited were different, incorporating various degrees of facilitative and program implementing roles. But each council's agenda fit its community, arising without specific mandate to address visible needs that were seen as important by all sectors.

Recommendations for the Future

Modest efforts by federal and state governments to promote and encourage the formation of collaborative I-E-L councils are warranted, in view of the beneficial impacts such councils can produce. While impacts in the form of job creation and public or private sector job placements for youths may not be impressive, compared to those created by massive infusions of federal funds through CETA, the results that are achieved are likely to be viewed as top priority to local residents. Special needs populations can and do receive considerable I-E-L council attention. Moreover, many of the services provided through collaborative council initiatives are rendered at little or no expenditure of public tax monies. And where government funds are sought, they are likely to come from multiple sources and be matched by considerable local effort aimed at ensuring their successful investment. Successes, even relatively small ones, provide motivation for subsequent community-initiated and organized attempts to diagnose and solve school-to-work transition problems.

Local collaboration obviously cannot be mandated successfully. Rather, collaboration, by its very definition, requires subtle encouragement. Such encouragement can take two forms. For areas where local leadership has recognized particular problems and has begun efforts to find collaborative solutions, such as in Boston, the most effective approach will be that which contributes resources for making those initial efforts successful. Depending on the nature of the problems identified, such resources may include access to sources of discretionary grants, technical assistance, and/or information about successful efforts conducted elsewhere.

In areas where local leadership has not coalesced, or possible solutions have not been identified, such as Contra Costa County, the most effective approach will be that which provides good ideas directly and encourages widespread local participation in their implementation. Variants of this approach have been used with considerable success throughout the state by the Industry Education Council of California (IECC), a statewide nongovernmental council featuring the support of many large corporations and civic organizations. Government support to an influential nongovernmental intermediary such as IECC is likely to be more successful than direct attempts at government intervention.

In the coming decade of reduced expectations for federal government involvement and funding, with probably exascerbation of youth transition problems, spending small amounts to encourage and support I-E-L councils appears to be a cost effective alternative.

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CHAPTER VI

THE ROLE OF STATES IN I-E-L COLLABORATION

State governments are fast becoming the focal points for planning, developing, and implementing the nation's human resources policies and programs. Public education, job training and placement, and job development, all represent significant planks in a state managed platform for human resources development.

Tax reform initiatives, by limiting the tax burdens of property owners, are forcing a transfer of fiscal control from local to state level. Each new restriction on property tax assessments transfers power from local school boards, and other local government authorities, to governors, state legislatures, and state bureaucracies with constitutional authority to provide policy direction.

Similarly, for more than a decade, the federal legislative and executive branches have sought to enhance or delegate to the states decision making authority on education, training and economic development issues (Wall Street Journal, 1981). Federal revenue sharing and decentralized administration policies are based on the assumption that program priorities and cost controls are best developed by agencies close to the action.

Thus from two directions--local and federal--governors, state legislators, and state bureaucracies have been the beneficiaries of increased authority--and with it the burden of increased responsibility--for the quality and cost effectiveness of a full spectrum of human development programs.

In at least one respect, state government policy makers are faced with precisely the same dilemma that has confronted their federal counterparts: given the limited resources available and given a history of disappointing impact by exclusively public sector education and training programs, how can the potential value of public resources be maximized through the activation of support from the private sector? As was the case with the federal government, state governments are searching for effective mechanisms to engage private sector interest and energies in collaborative approaches to human resource development.

The typical federal government response to this dilemma has taken three main directions: The appointment of advisory councils (heavily weighted with industry representatives) that operate at state and local levels in the case of vocational, career education and training, minor tax incentives for employer participation in education cooperatives and CETA work experience programs; and direct program control by employers in the case of CETA Private Industry Councils (PICs). As states attempt to grapple with their increased authority and responsibility and, in certain areas, increased discretionary resources, they have developed their own mechanisms for encouraging collaborative, multisector solutions to what have been heretofore separate and distinct jurisdictional areas of responsibility. Delaware, for example, has formed a Board of Directors for its Jobs for Delaware Graduates (JDG) made up of presidents of large corporations, banks, and public utilities. Over 1,000 high school graduates have been assisted or placed in unsubsidized employment opportunities since the initiation of the program a year ago (Jobs for Delaware Graduates, Inc., 1979).

Rhode Island has established a statewide business-labor-government partnership for the purpose of anticipating and resolving problems in the area of labor-management-government relations (Partnership of Business, Labor, and Government, 1977). Made up of key business and labor representatives in the state (state agency department heads do not sit on the collaborative council but do serve on task forces), the council has sought to develop guidelines for interagency planning covering such topics as the dollar resources needed by the state's education system if it is to support economic development programs.

Three states--North Carolina, South Carolina, and Colorado--have joined forces for the design and implementation of an occupational information system that will identify the occupational information needs of each state, then design a system to meet those needs (Research Triangle Institute, 1981). Through a contract with Research Triangle Institute, they are gearing up to gather and analyze information on job opportunities in sub-state regions in each of the three states. The following types of questions will be answered by means of this system: What types of training need to be provided and when? What resources and equipment are needed to tool up for the training? What numbers of trustees can be accommodated?

The State of Michigan has formed a statewide interagency collaborative board whose purpose it is to encourage the formation of regional and local councils for facilitating the transition of youth from education to work (National Institute for Work and Learning, 1981). The Governor of Idaho has recently authorized as part of his Executive Office, the formation of a statewide private industry council (PIC) to encourage local partnerships between business and government for the purpose of meeting the manpower needs of state businesses as well as enhancing the economic well being of the community (Office of the Governor, Boise, Idaho, 1981). These examples illustrate what can be achieved through innovative approaches to collaboration.

State Agencies and Services

Despite the fact that the federal government in the past has received the lion's share of attention of its support of social and economic development programs, state and local communities actually administer and are accountable for the vast majority of such programs. They educate our children, look after the needs of the poor and sick, enforce law and order, and provide or support transportation systems. They regulate public utilities, supervise the exchange of property, and oversee worker safety. Their efforts to provide for sanitation, conservation, housing, and urban development benefit most of us.

Typically, state agencies cluster around eight major service areas: education, transportation, health and welfare, housing and community development, business and industrial development, conservation of natural resources, public protection, and labor and human relations (Council of State Governments, 1980). There are, according to the Book of the States, some 37 managerial functions that fell under these and other headings.

Of critical importance to the coordination and success of these missions is the quality of leadership available in the office of the governor. A strong governor can do much to insure, for example, that the appropriate state resources are allocated in support of the creation of employment opportunities. Weak governors tend to have limited power over local and county government who often devise their own collaborative efforts. While it is difficult to compare the power of "weak" and "strong" governors, "to do so, one must examine the constitutional position of governors, their powers of appointment and removal over state officials, their ability and inability to succeed themselves, their powers over the state budget, their legislative influence, their position in their own party and its position in state politics, and their influence over interest groups and public opinion in the state" (Dye, 1981).

A governor's political and administrative power reflects to a large extent the constitutional restrictions placed on governors by political activists of the colonial era who feared excessive influence. The Jacksonian

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era further contributed to this limitation by promoting the notion that the election of as many state officials as possible would help to insure public control over state governments. The growth of merit systems and Civil Service Review Boards further limited the governor's ability to make appointments. Even today many of the more important state offices are governed by boards or commissions whose members are often appointed by the governor but with the consent of the state senate. Generally speaking, the greater the tenure of the governor, the fewer the number of other state officials elected to office. The larger the number of appointed state agency heads, the greater will be the overall power of the governor.

The most important responsibility of the governor and his immediate staff is the review and approval of budget requests of the state agencies. While no state monies can be spent without the approval of the state legislature, the governor as a practical matter exercises a good deal of decision making authority over the total amount and line-item allocation of state agency budgets.

Some governors, because of their newness to office, often rely heavily on their more experienced budget staff personnel for recommendations. These office holders over time become the most influential decision makers in the state government.

Much of a state's budget (estimated at over 50%) is already earmarked by state or federal legislative authority. Gasoline taxes, for example, are allocated almost always to highway construction and maintenance. A number of state agencies benefit from these independent sources of income, thereby reducing their dependence on the governor's budget office.

Welfare and education programs are the exception. They make up much of a state's discretionary budget. Education alone represents one-sixth of all government expenditures in the United States (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979) and substantially more than that when only state and local budgets are taken into account. In 1980, federal support for public elementary and secondary education was only 8.5% of the total expenditure on education.

The history of federal support for vocational education reveals a gradual shift of funding responsibility from the federal government onto the shoulders of state and local governments. In 1920, the federal government contributed 29% of the total expenditure while in 1977 it came to only 11% (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979). Even though vocational education has since 1917 received more federal support than other educational sectors, (giving the State Board of Vocational Education and the State Director a degree of independence not shared by other segments of the State Department of Education) its status has changed as federal appropriations have not kept pace with the accelerating cost of programs and services. However, in those states where a "weak" governor presides, the state board of vocational education and its related administrative agency has more power than those states where the governor has the right to appoint the chief state school officer under whose control vocational education is often lodged.

Traditionally, vocational education and human resource development programs more broadly conceived have been the primary responsibility of two or three state agencies who function independently of each other, each with their own planning arm. A recent study (Hartley, 1973) of state agencies and offices revealed that a majority of states (approximately 82%) were in the process of separating the planning function under the office of the governor. The rationale was to free up the planning agency from all of those operating agencies who have a contribution to make to a statewide program of human resource development but whose predisposition it was to look only at their primary area of responsibility. The principal mechanism for achieving this link has been to establish an interagency or cabinet-level task force who has the power to review budgets, establish regulatory and licensing functions, and appoint oversight committees or coordinating councils.

It should be pointed out that where governors do not exercise, for constitutional or other reasons, full control over state education budgets, they are not as likely to support or look to state departments of education for leadership in state economic development matters. Such decisions are guided by political considerations and do not necessarily reflect rational planning or decision making. In one state, for example, the governor in his "state of the state" message strongly endorsed the need for human resource training and development as one of a number of strategies for encouraging economic growth in the state. But he did not mention or include vocational education in his request to the state legislature for funding because vocational education is not a program under his direct control while non-education training is. The separation of education authority from governors may reduce the influence of political partisanship on education affairs, but it also serves to isolate education programs from programs requiring cross-agency coordination.

Turning our attention to the decision making powers of state agency heads, five factors are likely to influence their patterns of decision making. These are: (1) degree of autonomy--are they elected or appointed; to what extent are they accountable to federal or "earmarked" appropriations; (2) degree of client interest and support--who are these client groups and how potent are they politically; (3) sources and degree of fiscal control; (4) level of professionalism; and (5) linkages with other state level and federal agencies (Wright, 1976). Wright has observed that the "combination of these forces produces a rough sea for state agency heads to navigate. There is no clear policy beacon from which they can say, 'there's the place from which the policy cues that I take come.' The situation is better compared to an ocean where there are large numbers of blinking lighthouses, some of them blinking 'governor,' and some blinking the 'chairman' of a key legislative committee, and some signaling a very potent interest group" (Wright, 1976).

As noted earlier, fewer and fewer state agency heads are popularly elected or headed up by boards or commissions over whom the governor has relatively little control. The three most commonly elected officials other than the governor are the attorney general, the treasurer, and the secretary of state. Many do require that agency heads be approved by legislative committees.

An analysis of recent major constitutional revisions by Dye enabled him to classify the fifty states according to the appointive powers of governors (see Table VI-1)(Dye, 1981). Thus, in those states where most agency heads preside at the "pleasure" of the governor, they are under pressure to achieve whatever their program goals are within the time frame of the governor's tenure. Most governors enjoy a four-year term of office and some are permitted to succeed themselves indefinitely (19 states fall into this category). However, four states offer only two-year terms of office with no restrictions on re-election and six states provide four-year terms but specifically prohibit consecutive reelection.

Middle and lower echelon state agency personnel are more protected in their jobs because of the extension of civil service coverage largely as a result of the passage of the Social Security Act in 1935 which stipulated that states participating in national grants under this law had to install civil service systems for their employees. Since then civil service coverage is required of all state agencies who receive all or a part of their monies from federal agencies. As a result, more than half of all state employees are under civil service (Dye, 1981). In general this means that the more protected civil servants are less likely to support innovative programs, particularly those that originate at the local level. Agency heads with a degree of political awareness whose support is tied to their local clients, are, correspondingly, more likely to be responsive to suggestions emanating from those clients.

Those agencies that are dependent upon a substantial portion of their support from federal sources are often forced to exchange autonomy from state controls for a more restricted set of federally imposed guidelines. Those agencies who fall into this category are discovering that they must struggle with tailoring their programs to fit local needs while complying with federal

Table VI-1. Appointive Powers of Governors

Very strong	Strong	Moderate	Weak	Very weak
New York	California	Arizona	Alaska	Florida
Massachusetts	Colorado	Georgia	Alabama	Texas
New Jersey	Hawaii	Indiana	Idaho	South Carolina
Connecticut	Illinois	Louisiana	Mississippi	
Delaware	Iowa	Maine	Missouri	
Virginia	Maryland	New Hampshire	New Mexico	
North Carolina	Ohio	Montana	Nevada	
Arkansas	Pennsylvania	Nebraska	North Dakota	
Kentucky	South Dakota	Rhode Island	Oregon	
Minnesota	Tennessee	Utah	Oklahoma	
Vermont			Washington	
West Virginia			Wisconsin	
			Wyoming	

Source: Thomas R. Dye, Politics in States and Communities (4th Edition). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1981, p. 172. Reproduced by permission of the publisher.

guidelines. Vocational education is a case in point. It has been one of the few public educational programs to receive federal support over an extended period of time. Areas such as vocational education are therefore promising targets for local collaboration councils who can and should make their wishes known to state and federal representatives. State legislators respond well to such groups who can demonstrate that they not only speak for but can actually implement programs designed to serve local community needs.

Federally supported state agencies find it increasingly difficult to predict from year to year just what level of support they will receive. Some have had to adopt the practice of putting local organizations on "hold" while awaiting the outcome of their budget requests. The current debate over budget reductions at the federal level has led state agencies to look closely at accepting the transfer of responsibilities without a concomitant increase in federal revenues.

A study by Wattenbarger and Starnes (1976) found that the financial support patterns of a state and the federal government did not provide adequate funding to enable the goals of local education systems to be accomplished. Inadequate allocations put a disproportionate burden on those areas of the state where the assessed valuations of properties were low. Since most distribution formulas in education for federal and state aid are based upon the number of student credit hours, such allocation strategies ignore the differential costs of certain types of vocational education and the fact that adult part-time students are often not recognized as full-time enrollment (FTE) equivalents.

Federally funded economic development programs have suffered a similar fate. More and more states are finding it necessary to exact greater mileage from those federal allocations which are designed to strengthen a state's infrastructure or facilitate its economic growth. The trend toward centralized planning and decision making regarding human resource development programs mentioned earlier applies equally well to economic development. It, too, reflects the growing awareness that the coordination of state agencies and federally supported categorical aid programs is one promising way to accommodate cutbacks in funding.

It has been noted that publicly funded economic development programs and human resource development efforts should be mutually supportive concerns. Current cutbacks in federal support for both economic development programs and CETA programs will necessitate careful scrutiny of all related funding activities at both the state and local levels. While block grants may relieve part of the burden, state agency heads will be looking to local organizations for creative solutions which offer a better return on the dollar invested.

Turning now to specific state level agencies, a review of their mission funding sources should be of use to those seeking linkages with appropriate agencies at the state level. Three agencies, education, labor, and economic development, will be discussed and strengths and weaknesses noted. No single agency can claim jurisdiction over the employment and training needs of citizens throughout a state.

State Department of Education

One of the state agencies which traditionally has enjoyed a degree of autonomy from the control of the governor's office is the state department of education. All fifty state governments are authorized by enabling state legislation to set up local school districts and to furnish them with the wherewithal to run public schools. While state laws endow local districts with the authority to levy and collect taxes, to build school buildings, and hire teachers, they also restrict or specify the types and rates of taxes to be levied, what teaching credentials should be required, and the level of salaries to be paid to teachers.

In other words, state statutes stipulate in considerable detail how the public schools are to be run. While local education agencies (LEAs) enjoy some modicum of freedom in determining what and who shall teach, states have taken on increasing responsibility for deciding which textbooks will be used, what minimum performance standards are acceptable, and what size classrooms are acceptable. Testimonial to the increasing influence of state agencies at all levels of education can be found in a recent editorial published in the March 1981 edition of the Chronicle of Higher Education: "The trend is toward more and more detailed regulation in many states--in New York State, for instance, for the last decade the regulators have initiated or strengthened controls over the proportion of full-time faculty members in an institution, the number of minutes a class must meet, the size of the library, the location of branch campuses, the size of the local board of trustees, the nomenclature of the institution, and the development and licensing of new majors or courses of study" (Grunewald, 1981).

State legislators retain plenary powers over education including the power to review and approve statewide educational budgets. While state boards of education and various state commissions are frequently asked to review and propose improvements in state legislation concerning education, it is, in the final analysis, the legislature who establishes basic policy for the state's educational system (Campbell et al., 1965).

In the majority of states, the chief state school officer is appointed by either the state board of education or the governor. Eighteen states elect state superintendents by popular ballot. The others are appointed. Whether elected or appointed, state superintendents share authority with the state board of education but do wield considerable power by articulating statewide needs, by serving as spokesmen for education, and by advising the governor and legislators on educational issues when they arise (Campbell et al., 1965).

Overseeing the operations of the chief state school officer are one of more state boards of education. These may be of three types: governing boards, governing and coordinating boards, or coordinating boards (Bender, 1975). The jury is still out on which type of board is more desirable from the standpoint of human resource development policy formulation and program delivery. Coordinating boards or governing and coordinating boards tend to foster greater self-determination at the local level but even under these arrangements state superintendents and their staff can often usurp local control.

While the supervisory and budget making powers of states over all sectors of public education has steadily grown over the past two decades, states have yet to successfully integrate the planning and coordination of education programs with other state level agencies having a part in human resources development. As a result, the federal government has attempted to mandate coordination through its grants-in-aid programs. For example, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and subsequent Amendments stipulate that each state appoint a committee responsible for preparing the five-year state plan for vocational education. Represented on this committee are to be business and labor representatives, postsecondary and community college interests, state employment and training councils, private vocational schools, etc. The purpose of these plans is to identify the gaps and overlaps in vocational training course offerings and lay out a plan for improving their efficiency and effectiveness. Interagency relationships are among the key factors to be taken into consideration as these plans are developed. Specifically mentioned as warranting consideration are all the manpower services provided by other state agencies such as job development, counseling, placement, referral, data and information services and advocacy functions (Lamar, 1978). These plans spell out with some degree of precision the functions and services to be offered by public educational institutions as well as recognize that the training available through private sector programs needs to be taken into account.

In addition to the roles of state boards of education and the superintendents of public instruction in setting minimum standards for local school systems and overseeing the provision of services and information to local school officials, the state also grants operating monies and construction funds to local school districts. Such allocations often represent more than one-third of the overall state budget, making that portion of the budget both visible and vulnerable to political control. For the most part these funds are allocated on a formula basis in such a manner as to help to insure that educational opportunities are equalized in all segments of a state so that the poorer school districts will receive a larger portion of the funds available.

The trend towards increasing state support is firmly established. "In 1900 the state portion of total public school expenditures in the nation was only 17%. In the 1980s, however, state governments are contributing about 40% of total funds for the public schools" (Dye, 1981). The federal proportion (8.5%) has changed little in the last five years and is likely to remain at (or fall below) this percentage during the early part of this decade.

Supporting this trend toward increased state control of local school districts has been the passage for the past two decades of several far-reaching federal legislative programs. While it is true that the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 and the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 provided grants-in-aid to promote vocational education at the secondary and postsecondary levels in agriculture, mechanical arts, trades, industries, and home economics, it wasn't until right after World War II that the federal grants were made larger and more comprehensive. The National School Lunch and Milk Program (1946) and the Federal Impact Areas Aid Program (1950) authorized the use of federal funds for construction, operation, and maintenance of public (and to a limited extent private) schools.

These legislative actions were followed by a rash of new federal legislation stimulated by the Soviet Union's launching of the first space satellite in 1957. The National Defense Education Act of 1958, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and various programs of federal aid to colleges and universities (the NFS Fellowships, Basic Educational Opportunity Grants, the Higher Education Act, etc.) were the result. With the passage of these new laws came a host of regulatory provisions. Admission policies, record keeping procedures, employment practices, fiscal audits, all were subjected to monitoring by the federal government.

In spite of these relatively recent legislative actions and resultant regulations, however, the control and financial support for public education still lies largely in the hands of state and local authorities. Not only does the lion's share of revenues originate at the state and local level, but there is a strongly held tradition that keeps much of public education in the hands of local authorities. Thus, a good deal of planning and administrative control still resides with the state superintendent, state and local school boards, and local administrators. As an example, most state policies emphasize meeting the vocational education legislation needs of the general population. In contrast, federal vocational education legislation targets its funds to special needs groups, particularly the disadvantaged and the handicapped. In spite of these policy differences, however, "the state-local system is comparatively more unified within a given state than the federal-state system. The motivation for unity comes directly from the symbiotic relationship between the state and local levels. Local programs are dependent upon the state for funding....it (the state) is dependent for its continued existence upon local programs just as those programs are dependent upon the state" (Attenberry and Stevens, 1981).

State Employment Security Agency

Traditionally, this department performs three essential services: (1) coordinate and administer federal and state labor laws and regulations, including wage insurance and compensation for job related disabilities, (2) mediate and, if necessary, arbitrate labor disputes, and (3) sponsor job information, placement services, and manpower training programs. In the performance of its regulatory duties, this state agency enforces workmen's compensation laws, child labor laws, wage and hour laws, and portions of health and safety laws (Burns and Cronin, 1978). Other responsibilities it may also assume are setting and administering standards for local joint apprenticeship councils, enforcing equal employment opportunity requirements, and overseeing labor-management relations.

While most states do not assign to this agency the responsibility for economic development programs, the collection and reporting of economic, demographic and labor market statistics frequently does fall within its jurisdiction. For example, the State Occupational Information Coordinating Committees (SOICC), authorized under the Education Amendments of 1976, are frequently administered by this department. Many of the aspirations of state and local planners of vocational education programs to make their course offerings more responsive to employer needs are riding on the ability of the newly instituted SOICC job market information system to achieve a supply and demand match up.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) "balance of state" (BOS) responsibilities are usually assigned to this agency. CETA provides job training and employment opportunities to three classes of people: the economically disadvantaged, the unemployed, and the underemployed. The explicit goal of the training is to raise the income level of the targeted group (Attenberry and Stevens, 1981). Even though the time frame for increasing client incomes is relatively short, the CETA regulations authorize a range of support services such as unemployment compensation while undergoing training, health care, child care, and even transportation to ensure access to training. The principle actors in the CETA delivery system are the U.S. Department of Labor (which provides the resources), local prime sponsors (which administer the programs at the local level), and the balance-of-state prime sponsors.

The state's role in addition to administering the balance-of-state portion of the program, is largely one of coordination. While the number of prime sponsors within a state are determined by the number of people living within a local area, the BOS prime sponsor looks after the more sparsely populated regions of the state.

To qualify for CETA funding each state is required to have a state employment and training council (SETC) which serves to coordinate prime sponsors and the local employment and training planning councils (ETPC). Both the SETC and the ETPC are required to include representatives of the target populations of the CETA programs, management, labor, and community based organizations such as local school districts. Prime sponsors, incidentally, are also required to form Private Industry Councils (PICs) who represent local business, labor, and community interests.

Even though the state government's role is a limited one, the CETA Admendments of 1978 expanded the state's authority to support youth employment and training programs, particularly for minority groups located in inner-cities and rural areas. Six percent of the bulk of the monies available under CETA's Title II have been set aside for vocational education's assistance. In 1978, approximately $100 million was offered by states as supplemental grant money under the 6% set aside provision. Eighty-five percent of that money was earmarked for vocational education services for prime sponsor participants. The remaining 15% was used for coordination activities. Four percent has been reserved for governors to use in support of demonstration projects, program coordination purposes, and special services. The coordination of employment and training services statewide, the promotion and facilitation of planning, the gathering and reporting of occupational supply and demand data, and direct grants to local education agencies are all authorized activities under this set aside. In addition, 1% of the monies allocated under Title II has been earmarked for governors as linkage monies enabling them to encourage coordination between prime sponsors and local education agencies. Such monies, for example, can be used to cover the cost of developing new curriculum materials and technical assistance in designing training programs. In a recent survey of governors, 23% of this money went to local education agencies and 33% to state agencies (National Governors Association, 1981).

Each state wishing CETA funding must submit a Governor's Coordination and Special Services Plan to the U.S. Department of Labor indicating how the state plans to coordinate all employment and training, education and related services provided by the state, by prime sponsors, by state education agencies and other appropriate institutions of vocational and higher education (Attenberry and Stevens, 1981). The coordination function itself is carried out by the SETC which must include at least one representative from the state board of education and the state advisory council on vocational education.

Title VII of CETA is designed to link employment and training activities of the business community with all facets of the CETA program. Under this title, each prime sponsor must establish a private industry council whose purpose it is to improve upon employment and training programming so that it becomes more responsive to private sector manpower needs. At the present time, approximately 450 PICs are now in operation throughout the United States.

Under the Reagan administration, PICs are emerging as the principle source of private sector jobs for CETA eligible trainees. Title VII which authorizes private sector initiatives is the only line item under CETA authority in the FY'82 budget that Congress has slated for an increase. Worked in collaboration with other human resource development efforts at the local level, and at the state level in conjunction with BOS prime sponsors, it could prove to be one of the more effective strategies for responding to skill shortages experienced by employers in selected occupations and locations. It also represents one mechanism for actively involving business and labor representatives in CETA program development. By so doing, some of the private sector bias toward publicly sponsored employment programs hopefully could be reduced.

Since both CETA and the Vocational Education Act funds are among the few financial resources that local and state administrators can draw upon to encourage and support local collaborative council programs, more could be done to liberalize federal and state regulations to insure expanded collaborative council participation. In particular, local and state collaborative council members could be encouraged to participate in a variety of advisory and planning committee functions through appropriate modifications in existing legislation which specifically would suggest that they would be desirable participants. Titles II, IV, and VII of the '78 CETA Amendments would be strengthened by such an interpretation. State sponsored workshops and other information exchange strategies might prove to be an appropriate way of giving local councils more visibility and clout.

Returning to CETA sponsored programs for minorities and the unemployed, state employment security departments traditionally have attempted to coordinate two additional services. Local employment service offices provide counseling and testing, job interview training, and job referral and placement for anyone wishing to avail themselves of this service, some with CETA support. Local joint apprenticeship councils also avail themselves of policy guidance at the state level. State apprenticeship agencies (now located in 29 states) work in close cooperation with the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training. Unions and employer associations also offer guidelines for the development of state and local apprenticeship programs which provide a ready form for collaboration at both levels.

State Economic Development Agency

This state level agency is usually charged with the job of attracting new industry to a state as well as fostering the expansion and retention of existing industry. Through the use of a variety of incentives and tax credits, most states have mounted sophisticated, well publicized industry recruitment and support campaigns. Such agencies generally are concerned with finding suitable sites for new industries, facilitating land acquisition, making financial arrangements, negotiating tax breaks, and coordinating licensing and other arrangements needed to attract a new industrial or business venture. Many job creation efforts operating under the jurisdiction of state economic development programs have focused their attention on establishing a positive business climate, improving state roads and transportation systems, providing tax incentives, and, last but by no means least, insuring the availability of a ready and motivated work force. A study by the U.S. Census Bureau (Economic Development Administration, 1976) demonstrated that a well conceived and operated manpower training program fell among the top five considerations in an industrial plant location or expansion decision. Awareness on the part of state political leaders of this fact has helped propel the development of human resources to center stage in a dozen or more states.

State level economic development administrators have begun to include on their staff industrial training coordinators or look to vocational educators for help. The level at which coordination and linkage takes place varies considerably from state to state. In Florida, for example, formal contracts are drawn up at the state level between employers and vocational education resources throughout the state. In other states, such as Louisiana, coordinating committees link state level economic development personnel to the local school systems and technical institutions. In both cases, state and local resources are used to provide the training under contract with the state economic development department taking on the primary responsibility for needs assessment, client contacts, and the planning of training programs. To date, local collaborative councils have not been sought out as potential adjuncts to state or local recruitment campaigns.

Other Agencies

State health agencies, welfare programs, departments of natural resources, and housing and community development, all touch on some aspect of human resources development. Income assistance programs, child day care centers, work incentive programs (WIN) and Medicaid are just some of the services which these agencies provide their citizens. But these agencies are also under pressure to consolidate and coordinate their programs. For example, a number of states are experimenting with coordinating and integrating primary health care units and community mental health centers (Goldman et al., 1980). Turfmanship, conflicting goals, patient care strategies, and dollar shortages conspire to keep these organizations apart. Where modest success has been achieved, greater access, increased efficiency and more comprehensive services have resulted. Collaboration among health care agencies offer as much potential as collaboration among industry, education, and labor representatives.

To sum up the role of state agencies in fostering local collaboration, most seek to upgrade employment skills and insure access to training. A variety of strategies for the more active involvement of private sector interests have been tried. State departments of education have attempted to do so by adopting a policy of closely monitoring and responding to local employer manpower needs. Business and industry representatives sit on numerous curriculum advisory committees, on state and local school boards, and on state and local vocational education advisory councils. State employment security departments have been able to offer tax incentives and cost reimbursement for employer training expenses as well as inviting representation on state and local CETA related councils. Economic developers have tapped an array of economic and regulatory incentives as a means of encouraging employer support, particularly among the more closely regulated corporations such as banking, insurance, and public utilities, thus encouraging involvement in collaborative councils. The challenge for the local I-E-L executive director or concerned member is learning what requirements and criteria need to be met if state resources are to be tapped. Who's in charge; what guides agency policy making; and what procedures should one follow are questions that need to be answered.

Benefits of Coordination at the Local Level

Local development practitioners have long been adept at packaging land

and capital to foster the birth, location, or expansion of business firms. Vocational educators and PIC guided prime sponsors, while perhaps less knowledgeable about economic development strategies, know a great deal about how to assist people to qualify for and hold jobs. By uniting these two important resources, local communities can and are putting into place more effective job creation and development programs.

The costs of locating, hiring and training workers is a growing concern of employers. Assumption or reimbursement of these costs by prime sponsors offers a financial incentive to employers which should not be overlooked, especially for the newer or smaller organizations that have not yet developed a training capacity. Cash flow problems can be abetted by direct payments to firms that offer on-the-job training. Cooperative education and work-study programs can help to insure employers that they can guide and recruit promising students during their final months of vocational training.

Vocational educators and CETA staff can also be of assistance to their development colleagues when it comes to charting the local labor market and plotting better strategies to recruit firms which will fill gaps or employ experienced workers suffering unemployment. By assisting the smaller employers, new employment opportunities can be created at a rate which outstrips those of the larger firms (Birch, 1979).

Local officials are discovering that vocational administrators can tap planning and curriculum development resources needed as "up front" money when launching a major industry recruitment campaign. CETA funds can then be used to offset cost of actually implementing and delivering training. A visible and close working relationship among industry officials, human resource developers and labor representatives benefits both clients and participants.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Coordination, information brokering, and funding are likely to continue as the major responsibilities of state departments of education and employment services departments regarding local I-E-L council interests. Coordination will not be the sole responsibility of these two agencies, however. Because of the growing complexity and fragmentation of the federally run human resource development effort, the office of the governor has had to take on more and more of the planning and budgeting responsibility. The political sensitivity of the topic and the number of state agencies involved demands cabinet level awareness and coordination. Local I-E-L council representatives will need to familiarize themselves with the procedures, forms, and criteria required by the various state agencies when budget approvals, demonstration project support applications, and other requests are filed. Sensitivity to the procedures and requirements of the various agencies being approached will help to insure successful applications. Remember that the vocational education agencies tend to be more concerned with income enhancement and short term training and placement. Coordinating councils should build representation of key interest groups in their local council membership. By carefully charting the expectations, biases, and procedures to be followed, I-E-L councils can compete effectively for their share of a shrinking pie.

More attention needs to be given to ways of sharing the cost of training and placement with the private sector. Postsecondary vocational programs such as those found in community colleges and technical institutes are likely to enjoy greater success in fund raising, due in part to industry's willingness to reimburse its employees for tuition charges and in part to its willingness to cover the cost of short term training.

Private industry is likely to become even more strongly interested in and supportive of statewide human resource development efforts as young recruits and skilled tradesmen become harder to locate. The demographics of an aging work force together with projected shortages in selected occupations, e.g., machinists, will help turn employer attention to issues of supply. Cooperative education programs, customized industrial training services, and basic skill development conducted in collaboration with on-the-job training will be in great demand.

States can also be encouraged to take the initiative by passing legislation which supports full employment policies, tax, and other incentives to employers for manpower training, and demonstration projects. To date a few states, e.g., Michigan and Minnesota, have already passed full employment laws. Others have sought to encourage local industry-education-labor collaboration through funding coordinating councils. Still others are experimenting with various tax credits and incentives to private industry for the purpose of encouraging their participation in human resource development efforts. With federal funding in eclipse, this trend may become more pronounced.

States can and will continue to serve as coordinating bodies for information on employment opportunities throughout a given state. With an anticipated boom in new technologies (new computer application, wider use of robots, dramatic developments in word processing) this monitoring and reporting of emerging and existing job openings and skill requirements is destined to expand.

Issues of equity both in terms of access to jobs and training are likely to continue as a major priority of both state departments of education and state employment service agencies. Women and minorities will continue their pressure for "non-traditional" and "traditional" employment opportunities. Women not currently in the labor force will seek entry or re-entry through enrollment in vocational education programs in a variety of locations and institutional settings. Migrants, bilingual students, and recent immigrants will also turn in larger numbers to established vocational institutions for job skill and basic skill development.

Where within a state selected vocational training programs should be offered is also an issue best handled at the state level. Changing employment patterns, industry migration and growth, structural and frictional unemployment, all are factors which must be weighed by officials who take a balanced view of statewide requirements. This is not to say that local authorities should abdicate their responsibilities to inform state officials of their interests. Quite the contrary. Better decisions are made when there is adequate input from all local interest groups.

I-E-L councils are needed to insure that all training and placement services accurately reflect the learning styles and needs of adult trainees. Changes in age composition, sex, and ethnic status of our local and regional populations requires that the programs offered are geared not only to industry requirements but are flexible enough to accommodate a range of trainee needs as well. One of the most important functions that I-E-L councils can perform is to insure that business and trainee requirements are matched. Union representation on the council should help to reinforce that emphasis. Businesses can and will make facilities, equipment, and monetary resources available if those responsible for the development of basic skills and appropriate curriculum are responsive to employer interests but, at the same time, sensitive to the learning skills and needs of trainees.

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CHAPTER VII

RECOMMENDATIONS

Industry, labor, and education institutions are entering a new period of enthusiasm for mutual cooperation and alliances within communities. The major policy questions regarding this enthusiasm have far less to do with options for federal government leadership and far more to do with the leadership capacities of local and state institutions representing non-governmental sectors. Government can encourage, but others must "do" collaboration.

Will these leaders produce more effective learning and employment opportunities for young people and adults because of the collaborative projects they initiate? Or will these recent enthusiasms dissipate as a result of frustrations, unforeseen complexities, and a lack of true collaborative commitment in the face of the very real problems confronting American education and the American economy? Will there arise in fact a new, sustained coalition to create private and public sector support for the purposes, methods and financing of American education at the elementary, secondary, and postsecondary levels? Will a new coalition devise appropriate private and public policies to tackle the education and training needs of youth and working adults?

These are larger issues than this Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration Project was designed to address. But the future debate on these issues--whatever their eventual resolution--will make a big difference to the relative importance of local and state collaborative councils as vehicles for community and national problem-solving. Underlying our approach to this project, therefore, and articulated explicitly in Chapter I of this state of the art report, are two assumptions regarding the attitude that must guide further policy development by all institutions: business, labor, and education as well as government.

First, the emphasis in this report is on social investment. Business and labor involvements with education institutions must be perceived to pay dividends in much the same way that investments in long-range planning, marketing, coalition-building, and staff training pay dividends. Collaboration has got to produce more than an intangible good will if it is to be taken seriously by leaders across all sectors. The most important benefits of collaboration are long-term and tied to the difficult task of restructuring the connections between education and work institutions. Because short-term, quick pay-off investments are the easiest to devise and sell, our emphasis is on longer term rationales and incentives for collaboration. "Social investment" is a phrase that seems to describe this emphasis.

Reporting on the diversity of those investments has been one purpose of this study. Suggesting ways that business, labor, and education leaders can better negotiate the terms of future investments is the main purpose of these recommendations.

Our second assumption is that strong leadership within all major sectors of American society will be necessary to assure that the energy and resources now being devoted to collaborative initiatives are not wasted. Specifically, this means that the alliances of education institutions with business and industry must not exclude the valuable resources and perspective of organized labor, community service agencies, and local government. Past "waves" of education-industry enthusiasm subsided in large part because they lacked a balanced approach. Balance, including tolerance of controversy, is essential if projects and programs are to "ring true" to the students, educators, parents, and community participants. Equally important, because any initiative is vulnerable to mistakes and the need for redirection, having a coalition of multi-sector leaders is an important way to anticipate problems, reduce causes for criticism, and sustain commitments when problems occur.

These two policy assumptions are accompanied by a third assumption, this one dealing with the locus of responsibility for the implementation of these recommendations. The recommendations were solicited by the U.S. Department of Education for its own policy and planning needs. As the project draws to a close, the future status of the Department and of the federal government's entire role in education is being debated. Behind these recommendations is our assumption, and firm belief, that the federal government should assume a catalytic and nondirective, yet leadership role with regard to this specific matter of creating mechanisms for local industry-education-labor collaboration.

National leadership is needed to legitimize and build on the many good, local practices that already exist. Transforming a scattering of good practices into a nationwide, decentralized, and voluntary strategy will happen only with the visibility that national leadership can provide. The major part of that leadership responsibility must be with top leaders from business and organized labor. Another major part belongs to leading educators, state governors, mayors, and others representing education and training agencies in the non-federal public sector. Another part belongs to the leaders of community service and philanthropic non-profit organizations.

But the present opportunity for involving these sectors in a common nationwide effort, or series of common efforts, can benefit now from federal government leadership. For a complex assortment of reasons, no one sector may want to initiate national action for fear of appearing self-serving or "controlling." The history of collaborative efforts shows that initial enthusiasms are soon tempered by the slow progress and problems of nuts-and-bolts, grassroots implementation. The major challenges to effective collaborative action are quality control and sustaining commitments. Therefore it is crucial that the correct attitudes, expectations, and collaborative processes be established from the start.

Finally, readers should not think that a project whose whole orientation has been to review local industry-education-labor collaboration has lacked recommendations aimed at community-level leaders. The project's recommendations for the development and operation of local industry-education-labor collaborative projects and councils are contained in another project publication, Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration: An Action Guide for Collaborative Councils.

Recommendations:

The recommendations below are organized in four sections:

- Recommended improvements in the collection and dissemination of information essential to the creation of effective programs of industry-education-labor collaboration nationwide
- Recommended improvements in the leadership of collaborative activities nationwide
- Recommended federal government actions encouraging industry-education-labor collaboration in states and communities
- Recommended state government actions encouraging collaboration

Improvements in Essential Information

Recommendation 1: As a supplement to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), a periodic National Assessment of Employability Skills should be developed to identify trends in the skill levels required for entry and first echelon promotion in major occupational sectors.

Rationale: Beyond a nearly universal requirement for adequate preparation of all youths in the traditional basic skills of reading, writing, and computation, employers differ substantially in the characteristics of the "product" they expect from schools and colleges. Also, these expectations change over time. Educators report a "whiplast effect" from trying to find consensus among employers, with some employers adamant in emphasizing only basic skills and others equally demanding of a full range of occupational skills. Setting local, state, and national priorities for educational policy and budgets requires a more accurate reading of the "fit" between education and employment.

Lacking is an accurate broad-brush perspective on the core sets of skills required for entry into major components of the national labor market. It is now accepted fact that these skill requirements have been changing as a result of technological advances. Yet the high school completion and adult literacy rates have remained relatively stable while the proportion of unskilled entry opportunities shrinks.

Tracing these trends in manufacturing, service, and agricultural employment should be an essential aid to the development of education and training policy. If modeled on the cost-effective periodic national sampling methods used for the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), this data collection could be of great value to diverse information users, including the general public.

Two kinds of data collection are contemplated. First is an assessment of the employability and task performance skills of young people (roughly ages 16-18). Second is an assessment of "entry level" jobs to determine the status of employer-required work habits and skills. Presumably, the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the National Center for Educational Statistics should collaborate on the sponsorship of this national assessment.

A qualified non-profit research organization should be responsible for the actual technical work of developing and implementing the assessment. It is possible that NAEP itself could perform the work, with some assistance on the "employer needs" side. Responsibility for contract initiation and use of findings should be located at the secretariat level of the Departments of Education or Labor.

It follows from this recommendation that utmost effort should be made to provide to the general public and students lucid information about broad trends in occupational skill requirements along with accurate information about trends in specific occupations in demand.

Local collaborative councils already have demonstrated their capacity to design and implement multi-agency strategies for dissemination of occupational information. The concept of local occupational information coordinating committees could be used by collaborative councils as a vehicle for this task.

Recommendation 2: The federal government should collect on a periodic basis quantitative and qualitative data as rough but valid indicators of the scope of industry-education-labor relationships.

Rationale: Information available on the extent and types of business and labor involvements with education institutions is almost entirely anecdotal. If the building of effective relationships among these sectors is to be raised to the level of national policy, more reliable reports on the status of these relationships is essential. For example, neither the Digest of Education Statistics nor The Condition of Education, both published by the National Center for Education Statistics, provide any insight into industry-education-labor collaboration simply because no data is yet collected that would make such publication possible.

It is beyond the scope of this report to suggest methods of data collection. Obvious options range from modifications of existing national surveys of education institutions, to case studies, to development of stratified random sample surveys especially designed for this purpose. The main point of the recommendation is to state that the need exists and to indicate the general direction in which the government may move.

The hope is that a variety of methods--case studies and journalistic reports as well as sample surveys--will clarify qualitative as well as quantitative trends in the scope of collaborative activities nationwide.

One or more qualified research organizations should be responsible on a contract basis for the actual data collection depending upon the variety of methods used. Case studies and journalistic reports probably should be a responsibility of the proposed Clearinghouse on Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration (Recommendation 3).

Responsibility for contract sponsorship should be located at the Assistant Secretary level in the Department of Education or a successor agency responsible for vocational and adult education and training.

Recommendation 3: A Clearinghouse on Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration should be established as a "neutral" source of information and assistance, on collaborative practices.

Rationale: The I-E-L Clearinghouse should provide special expertise in three key areas: 1) by continuing the work of this project by being a focal point for information on local and state collaborative councils; 2) by tracking the growth of business, labor, and community-service organization involvements in local "adopt-a-school," "partnership," and "magnet" programs with secondary school systems; and 3) by working with national postsecondary education associations to document and disseminate information on college and university alliances with business and labor (for example, in the areas of pre-employment training, contract training, and tuition assistance programs).

The function of a national clearinghouse should be to provide conceptual leadership, quality assessments, objective information, and practitioner networking in support of organizations and communities initiating collaborative programs. The activities should include: a comprehensive and actively updated reference system on local and state collaborative activities, a free or low cost newsletter aimed at practitioners and community decision-makers, a systematic advertising and networking service to solicit local information and put inquirers in touch with nearby practitioner-consultants, an "800" telephone number, a workshop-planning service to backup and give visibility to the practitioner-consultant network, and a publications program.

The Clearinghouse would also obtain assistance from (or refer inquiries to) such organizations as the Joint Council on Economic Education, the Chamber of Commerce's Business and Economic Education (BEE) Clearinghouse, the Education Departments of the AFL-CIO and UAW, the ERIC and National Alliance of Business Clearinghouses, the American Vocational Association, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, The American Society for Training and Development, the Conference Board, The National Association for Industry-Education Cooperation and other agencies acting as clearinghouses for specialized segments of the broad spectrum of collaborative activities.

Funding for the I-E-L Clearinghouse, ideally, should be provided jointly by federal agencies, corporations, unions, and major independent foundations.

Improvements in Leadership

Leadership in industry-education-labor relationships is at present diffuse and tentative when viewed form a nationwide perspective. Many voices in the last year have stated an interest in filling this vacuum. But if collaboration is to be institutionalized as an established pattern in the ways schools and colleges relate to other community institutions, more serious attention must be paid to the quality of "balance" in the shape of those relationships. Creating effective infrastructures will take time and testing. Designs will vary across communities. Many sources of wisdom and leadership will be needed.

Suffice to say that we believe that a balanced approach to collaboration should include: collaborative councils; broadly conceived career and vocational education programs; thoughtful career development programs built on combinations of internships, cooperative education, community service, and career guidance, counseling, and information; opportunities for part-time workers and students and for industry-services training programs; active participation of labor and business leaders on boards of education, college boards of trustees, and special purpose community task forces on educational program and economic development.

The recommendations here simply focus on four areas where immediate action is both justified and feasible at the national level.

Recommendation 4: Major national philanthropic foundations, corporate foundations, and community-based foundations should show leadership in the creation of "good idea funds" at community and state levels.

Rationale: Privately organized sources of funding for imaginative projects are especially needed in rural and urban poverty areas where a few good ideas can give hope to many others.

Funds of the type suggested here already exist in communities such as Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and San Francisco, California. These funds can provide the margin of innovation permitting experimentation and creativity to blossom. The mini-grant concept is particularly attractive because it provides operating funds and prestige and institutional legitimacy to individuals, teachers, managers, workers, parents, students or others who have a good idea requiring collaboration and are willing to devote their efforts to see it work. While individual projects are small, the cumulative effects of many such projects over a number of years can be significant for the spirit of industry-education-labor collaboration within a community. Multiply this diversity of involvements across a state or the nation and the effects could be extraordinary and extraordinarily cost effective.

It is an irony of the times that activities which may engage hundreds of hours of unpaid volunteers may succeed or fail depending on the initial availability of small grants to cover materials, transportation, or planning time (in the case of larger projects). School systems, college programs, and collaborative councils operating on shoestring budgets frequently spend substantial energy searching our relatively minor budgets for resources that are not available on an in-kind basis.

Community and state-based education-work funds would quickly become an integral part of an informal dissemination network for effective collaborative practices. With proper nurturing, this informal network might also become an ally of more formal dissemination mechanisms like the National Diffusion Network and the State Occupational Information Coordinating Committees.

Recommendation 5: Top management, professional associations and employee unions associated with four key industries--banking, insurance, public utilities, and major national retailers--should be encouraged in their efforts to develop private sector leadership strategies for industry-education-labor collaboration.

Rationale: Each of these industries represents a vast national network of industry-labor resources "rooted" in almost every American community. Each of these industries acting through individual firms for the most part has demonstrated already a capacity for social leadership within the private business sector. For example, since 1973 the insurance industry has sponsored the Clearinghouse on Corporate Social Responsibility and actively promoted the concept of community social health in its broadest connotation. Within specific communities and varying with specific firms, each of these four major consumer industries has exhibited exemplary, pace-setting concern for quality education at all levels.

The time is ripe for engaging the obvious interests and leadership of these industries in carefully thought out, decentralized, voluntary action planning. Leadership is needed to focus both industry-wide social investments and the projects of specific corporations and corporate foundations on the urgent education, training, and employment needs of both young people and adults.

For example, educational associations and the Departments of Education and Labor could work with the Insurance Information Institute, acting as liaison with the insurance industry, to remove misunderstandings about accident liability insurance coverage for student interns and unpaid visitors. Such misunderstandings now constitute a significant barrier (or excuse for resistance) to effective collaborative programs. Follow-up at the community level would reinforce correct information with specific projects.

Also, federal agencies could convene meetings to explore the possibility of expanding the uses of corporate and union tuition assistance programs to cover some or all of the expenses of pre-employment and pre-apprenticeship training programs geared to the needs of specific firms and industries.

A third example: these people-intensive service industries could be encouraged to reexamine their policies affecting part-time students. Greater flexibility in hiring and work practices might encourage employees to seek training in education institutions, enable parents to support families while improving their career skills, and create more opportunities for secondary and postsecondary education institutions to provide instructional services on-site at convenient employer or union locations and times.

Recommendation 6: The agenda for national-level discussions of collaboration among business, labor, and education leaders should aim for concerted action on three priority areas: 1) basic skills (including computer literacy) 2) pre-employment training, and 3) concentrated skill training for occupations with critical labor shortages. These priorities are of equal importance to youth and adult learners and workers.

Rationale: Had the energies of the three sectors (and government) been applied successfully over the past decade to even one of these chronic national problems, the credibility of education institutions, and respect for business, labor, and government would have been substantially enhanced.

Because of their central roles as employers of entry-level personnel and as leaders in community economic development planning, the key industries mentioned in recommendation 5 could also be leaders in linking these three "supply side" priorities to a fourth priority beyond the scope of this recommendation: jobs.

Here again, the proper federal government role is to encourage rather than mandate private sector involvement in these issues. The fundamental responsibility for effective education and basic skills training rests clearly with education institutions. Only through dialogue and specific projects in specific communities can relationships be defined case by case. Through their support for basic skills, vocational, career, and cooperative education programs, state and federal governments can exercise both catalytic and programmatic leadership supporting private sector involvements.

The concept of voluntary regional task forces might be especially appropriate in dealing with some human resource priorities. For example, machine tool industry regional task forces already exist in some locations across the nation. Focusing on apparent "bottlenecks" and barriers to the flow of skilled workers into skilled jobs and apprenticeship programs, regional collaborative task forces could define solutions, compare thinking and proposals, and develop their own strategies and resources for change.

Another plausible example might be the development of corporate-union-education adult basic skills programs. Young adults with direct work responsibilities should be better motivated to learn the essential skills they missed earlier. Tuition aid and flexible scheduling are resources which can be applied to this kind of important collaborative project.

The core concept is the initiation of problem-centered dialogue at multiple levels. Industry-wide action can set patterns for other industries to follow.

Recommendation 7: National forums should be created to stimulate collaborative education-work action at state and local levels.

Rationale: A national Task Force on Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration might be one feasible forum. But the inherent weakness of forming a multi-sector task force is its vulnerability to changing political currents. For example, it may prove especially difficult for the Department of Education or other federal agencies to convene a national collaborative task force at the same time that great debates flourish over questions of federal government responsibilities for education and training programs. The national task force or council method is most appropriate when consensus already exists or is within reach on basic national goals and institutional roles.

Yet even when clear consensus is lacking, leadership can be exerted through less overt and formal ways. Federal agencies and national business, labor, and education groups should strive to improve their communication with each other through:

- Seeking out "neutral" agencies to convene meetings or even to help create an apolitical national task force. Depending on the issue or the timing for such an initiative, for example, a consortium of leading education, state government and/or private philanthropic organizations might prove an appropriately neutral sponsor.
- Co-sponsorship of regional conferences and workshops on industry-education-labor collaboration techniques such as cooperative education, pre-apprenticeship training, career and vocational education, and collaborative council projects.
- Bi-lateral meetings among educators and labor leaders and practitioners, educators and business leaders and practitioners, business and labor human resource program developers, and these with community service agency representatives.
- Participation on various education and training advisory councils mandated by federal law.

Improvements in Federal Government Actions

Recommendation 8: Liaison between federal government education and training agencies, private sector employers and unions, and national education organizations should be institutionalized in three ways: 1) make liaison a formal staff function at the Secretariat and/or agency-head level; 2) establish periodic meetings of the agency/department head with groups of industry, labor, and education leaders; 3) strengthen business/industry and labor representation on mandated career and vocational education advisory councils.

Rationale: Organizations and individual leaders concerned about industry-education-labor collaboration should feel that there is an official point of contact at the highest staff level of federal agencies. This level of contact expresses a seriousness of concern for their interests while depoliticizing contacts that otherwise might be directed unnecessarily to the Secretary or agency head.

The formal staff liaison function probably should be located together with similar functions linking the agency to other federal agencies and the Congress. The intent here should be to include the liaison function in an office where internal coordination of agency policies can be managed efficiently.

Within the current Department of Education, for example, it may be appropriate to institutionalize this function both at the Secretariat level and in the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Vocational and Adult Education.

Also, groups such as the Forum of Educational Organization Leaders (FEOL) serve a valuable function as regular sources of ideas and feedback on federal government performance as seen by important constituencies. Such groups are also important vehicles for informing and influencing these constituencies.

This recommendation simply suggests that independent groups similar in structure to FEOL be requested by the Secretaries of Education and Labor to present the respective views of business/industry, secondary/postsecondary education, organized labor, and the national networks of community-based organizations.

Although the groups would meet independently of one another, the overall effects will be to broaden the national constituency for education and training, and build greater capacity within the participating groups to communicate and work with each other on specific issues of common interest.

Should these periodic discussions identify problems and issues meriting serious and sustained attention, it would be feasible and appropriate to quickly create special advisory task forces to assist the federal government in framing policies and programs requiring industry-education-labor collaboration.

The use of blue-ribbon task forces on a non-permanent, non-legislated basis can be a way of charting new directions and developing consensus for specific new initiatives. Specialized task forces initiated at the assistant secretary level could examine industry-education-labor roles and resources in specific areas such as basic skills and high demand occupational training.

Similarly, by working on an interagency basis--especially with the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Education, and Labor, and agencies such as the National Science Foundation and the National Endowments for the Arts and Humanities--the federal government can set an example of national support for business and labor participation in education which others may follow.

Finally, simply by enlarging the proportion of business/industry and labor members on mandated federal and state advisory councils for vocational education, the government can attempt to assure itself of representative guidance in those specific program areas.

Recommendation 9: Offices within the Department of Education and other federal agencies can strengthen their expertise on major issues affecting industry-education-labor relationships by organizing "in-service" seminars and briefings.

Rationale: Simple as this sounds, direct, personal contact with spokespersons for industry and labor interest in education, training, and general human resource development has been lacking at many points within the government. At a time when private sector human development functions are being expanded and is some cases "revolutionized," this lack of contact is a severe handicap to the federal government's ability to be supportive of these non-government initiatives and to anticipate appropriate governmental roles.

This "in-service" education is best left as an informal function using group "conversations," or interviews with outside speakers as the primary means of establishing rapport and exploring issues of mutual interest. More formal "linkage" discussions organized internally or through a consultant/contract arrangement may be useful.

The headquarters and regional offices of federal agencies are located in major urban areas with ready access to educators, business executives, and labor leaders knowledgeable about education and training programs and policies in their own sectors.

Recommendation 10: To the extent that they agree with the recommendations in this report, leaders in the Department of Education and other federal agencies should endorse the general concept of local and state collaborative councils and the principles of diversity and local determination in council formation. Endorsement should take two forms: 1) remove legislative barriers, and 2) improve visibility for industry-education-labor collaboration and councils.

Rationale: Federal government legislation and regulations related to education and training agency relationships with business, labor, and other community institutions and resources should state explicitly that state and local education and training agencies may use federal funds to participate in and support local collaborative councils to the extent deemed appropriate by those respective agencies.

Most employers and unions view financial support of councils and their projects a legitimate function of government and education institutions.

Business and labor organizations already contribute signigicant volunteer time and pay taxes.

But the fact that many communities choose to use funds from vocational education and employment and training legislation to support councils and their projects has not prevented the executives of similar agencies in other communities from denying requests from councils on the alleged basis that such use is not mentioned and is therefore prohibited. Removing this obstacle (or excuse, as the case may be) is one aim of this recommendation.

Endorsement may also take the forms of inclusion in speeches of references to councils and industry-education-labor collaboration, of workshops, of supportive research, and of the adoption of one or more of these recommendations, or of other actions suggested by others.

Recommendation 11: The Secretary of Education should use annual awards to recognize exemplary corporate, union, and education institutional leadership in creating effective industry-education-labor collaboration. Similar awards could be made in the states by Governors and/or Chief State School officers.

Rationale: In an era of dramatic changes in the relationships between education and work institutions, examples of creative and effective leadership deserve special recognition as beacons showing others how to get the job done.

Even within their own communities and states, exemplary programs frequently go unnoticed and unappreciated. The practitioners themselves frequently do not realize the value of their examples. The simple concept of annual national (or state) awards is proposed as a corrective measure to these gaps. If carefully prepared and restricted to accomplishments of significant worth, the awards can lend valuable publicity and prestige to collaborative efforts nationwide.

The nomination and selection process could be coordinated in an objective way through the proposed Clearinghouse on Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration (Recommendation 3).

Improvements in State Government Actions

Recommendation 12: State governments should give serious attention to the advantages of direct financial support of local collaborative councils within their states.

Rationale: Several state governments have supported the development and maintenance of local collaborative councils. Funds from the Vocational Education Act and Comprehensive Employment and Training Act have been used. Workshops or other formats for exchanges of ideas and experiences with councils should be arranged for state agency staff and decision-makers.

Particularly as governors and state legislators attempt to involve private sector leaders in the development of policies and programs linking economic development efforts to education and training resources, the significance and practice of local collaboration should be given greater visibility by state leaders.

While mandating local collaborative councils runs counter to their philosophy and sense of ownership, they can be encouraged to develop their projects, through modest investments of state funds. States must develop "threshhold" criteria (such as those suggested earlier in this report) by which to judge the qualifications of local councils.

Recommendation 13: Governors, in collaboration with state-level education, industry/business, and labor leaders, should develop their own programs to improve the environment for effective industry-education-labor collaboration. Such programs should be based upon improvements in information, leadership, and state agency actions.

Rationale: Most of the preceding recommendations can also be applied at state levels.

- Governors can demonstrate leadership directly by:
  - -- speaking to the issues of collaboration as an effective investment in their states' economic and social welfare.
  - -- forming interagency task forces to meet with business, labor and education representatives to identify priority areas for state agency action.
  - -- making state agencies themselves models of exemplary education-employer-labor relationships by reviewing and improving agency involvements in secondary and postsecondary cooperative education programs, internship and career exploration programs, youth and adult pre-employment programs and coordinated career information and career development programs for state employees seeking additional education and training.
  - -- improving state legislation supporting cooperative education, work-study, pre-employment training, career development services for youths and adults, including adults receiving welfare and unemployment compensation.
  - -- creating state-level collaborative task forces to address specific issues such as basic skill programs, pre-employment training, and skill training for occupations in demand.
  - -- annual awards for exemplary collaborative projects and programs.
- A state-level clearinghouse could improve information gathering and dissemination coordinating the preparation and dissemination of case studies, assisting a few communities to function as "beacons" of effective community-wide collaboration, and/or staffing a state-level collaborative council. A state clearinghouse could be a joint project of a state university's schools of education, business, and industrial relations (or labor studies). (See Recommendation 3.)
- "Good idea funds" at state and local levels could benefit from the stimulus of state leadership. Philanthropic, corporate, and community foundations could be urged to consider coordinated action in this area. (See Recommendation 4.)
- Key industries will vary from state to state. Although those mentioned in Recommendation 5 (banking, insurance, utilities, major retailers) are important everywhere, others such as agriculture, electronics, defense, energy, or traditional manufacturing may be positioned to play key roles in specific states.

- Key leadership groups such as Rotary, major unions, United Way, 4-H, Chambers of Commerce, may also be prepared to play major roles as part of their community service missions in addition to motivation derived from a more self-interested institutional mission.

Recommendation 14: States should initiate action research to review and correct unnecessarily restrictive or outmoded state regulations and laws limiting the types and duration of out-of-school learning experiences for in-school youth.

Rationale: Unnecessarily restrictive or outmoded state regulations and laws are of two basic types. Some restrict educators (especially secondary schools) in the types and extend of out-of-school learning experiences they can offer, or in the flexibility permitted for scheduling instruction, or in the ways instruction is supervised. While the core purposes of these regulations may be quite legitimate, one side effect can be to stifle curricular creativity and deny to local school authorities the flexibility they need to encourage private sector involvements.

Review of state procedures should point out variations and rationales and identify effective state practices.

In some instances, state laws and regulations are written and enforced to permit local flexibility, but lack of awareness or enforcement ambiguities still have the practical effect of inhibiting school administrators and local school boards. In some instances educators in one community use these ambiguities as excuses for non-participation while their neighboring districts proceed to innovate.

Taken together, this lack of administrative clarity and the tentative behavior it produces only serves to frustrate business and union assistance and to reinforce in their minds the image of education institutions as rigid bureaucracies. One major effect of these practices is to direct business and labor collaboration away from secondary and elementary education institutions at a time when positive action is needed to give meaning to the rhetoric of collaboration.

National groups such as the National Governors' Assocation and the council of Chief State School Officers could compile these state reviews and provide comparative analysis and recommendations.

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The National Institute for Work and Learning (formerly the National Manpower Institute) is a private, not-for-profit, policy research and demonstration organization established in Washington, D.C. in 1971. NIWL is concerned with encouraging public and private sector policies and practices that contribute to the "fullest and best use of the life experience"; with eliminating artificial time-traps which segment life into youth for schooling, adulthood for working, and the rest of life for obsolescence; and with a more rational integration of education, employment and training, and economic policy.

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